

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience: Development Process and Outcomes of Adult Literacy Education in Korea

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Adult Literacy Education in Korea**

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Knowledge Sharing Program

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience

Development Process and Outcomes of Adult Literacy Education in Korea



Preface

The study of Korea's economic and social transformation offers a unique opportunity to better understand the factors that drive development. Within one generation, Korea had transformed itself from a poor agrarian society to a modern industrial nation, a feat never seen before. What makes Korea's experience so unique is that its rapid economic development was relatively broad-based, meaning that the fruits of Korea's rapid growth were shared by many. The challenge of course is unlocking the secrets behind Korea's rapid and broad-based development, which can offer invaluable insights and lessons and knowledge that can be shared with the rest of the international community.

Recognizing this, the Korean Ministry of Strategy and Finance (MOSF) and the Korea Development Institute (KDI) launched the Knowledge Sharing Program (KSP) in 2004 to share Korea's development experience and to assist its developing country partners. The body of work presented in this volume is part of a greater initiative launched in 2007 to systemically research and document Korea's development experience and to deliver standardized content as case studies. The goal of this undertaking is to offer a deeper and wider understanding of Korea's development experience with the hope that Korea's past can offer lessons for developing countries in search of sustainable and broad-based development. This is a continuation of a multi-year undertaking to study and document Korea's development experience, and it builds on the 20 case studies completed in 2010. Here, we present 40 new studies that explore various development-oriented themes such as industrialization, energy, human capital development, government administration, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), agricultural development, land development and environment.

In presenting these new studies, I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to all those involved in this great undertaking. It was through their hard work and commitment that made this possible. Foremost, I would like to thank the Ministry of Strategy and Finance for their encouragement and full support of this project. I especially would like to thank the KSP Executive Committee, composed of related ministries/departments, and the various Korean research institutes, for their involvement and the invaluable role they played in bringing this project together. I would also like to thank all the former public officials and senior practitioners for lending their time and keen insights and expertise in preparation of the case studies.

Indeed, the successful completion of the case studies was made possible by the dedication of the researchers from the public sector and academia involved in conducting the studies, which I believe will go a long way in advancing knowledge on not only Korea's own development but also development in general. Lastly, I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Joon-Kyung Kim for his stewardship of this enterprise, and to his team including Professor Jin Park at the KDI School of Public Policy and Management, for their hard work and dedication in successfully managing and completing this project.

As always, the views and opinions expressed by the authors in the body of work presented here do not necessarily represent those of KDI School of Public Policy and Management.

May 2012

Oh-Seok Hyun

President

KDI School of Public Policy and Management



Contents | LIST OF CHAPTERS

Summary	12
---------------	----

Chapter 1

Introduction	13
1. The Object of Study	14
2. The Content of Study	15
3. Methodology of the Study	16

Chapter 2

Background for Introducing Policy for Adult Literacy Education	19
1. Beyond the Pains of the Times	20
1.1 From the Liberation to the Korean War	20
1.2 The U.S. Military Occupation and Establishment of the Government of the Republic of Korea (The U.S. Military Occupation-1950)	26
2. Development of Policy for Adult Literacy Education	30
2.1 Background of Policy Introduction	30
2.2 Contents of the Education Act	30

Chapter 3

Implementation of Policy for Adult Literacy Education	33
1. Literacy Education during National Restoration Period	34
1.1 Making Efforts for Restoring the Nation	34
1.2 Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education and Citizenship Training School	35
1.3 Five-year Plan for Eradicating Illiteracy: 1954-1958	38
1.4 Literacy Education for Military Personnel	47
2. Literacy Education in the Economic Development Period	50
2.1 Building Basic Capability for Economic Development	50
2.2 Literacy Education in Second Republic of Korea	52
2.3 National Reconstruction Movement and Literacy Education	53
2.4 Breakup of Reconstruction Movement and Decline of Policy for Literacy Education	56
2.5 Private-led Literacy Education	57
3. Adult Literacy Education since the 1990s	60
3.1 Maturity of Civil Society and Policy for Adult Literacy Education	60
3.2 Policy for Adult Literacy Education and Its Legal Grounds	64
3.3 Modification of System for Adult Literacy Education	69



Contents | LIST OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 4

Achievements and Implications of Policy for Adult Literacy Education	89
1. Achievements of Adult Literacy Education	90
1.1 Decrease in Adult Illiteracy Rate	90
1.2 Universal Education and Increase of Enrollment Rate	94
1.3 Increase of Participation in Lifelong Learning Activities	96
1.4 Cooperative System between Government and NGOs	97
1.5 Recognition of Academic Background	100
2. Implications	101
2.1 Expansion of Concept of Literacy and Education and its Target	101
2.2 Building National Infrastructure of Legal and Institutional Support	102
2.3 Facilitating the Participation of NGOs	104
2.4 Social Recognition and Standardization of Learning Result	105
References	107

Contents | LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 2

Table 2-1 Literate Population of Korea (As of October 1, 1930).....	23
Table 2-2 Literate Population of Korea (As of 1930).....	23
Table 2-3 Number of Night Schools (1906~1931).....	24
Table 2-4 Characteristics of Illiteracy Education in the Japanese Occupation Period.....	26
Table 2-5 Status of Local Instructors (1947)	29

Chapter 3

Table 3-1 The Rate of Enrollment in Compulsory Education	36
Table 3-2 Yearly Increase of the Number of Enrolled Children (1954~1959).....	36
Table 3-3 Yearly Statistics of Citizenship Training School (1953~1959).....	37
Table 3-4 Contents of Illiteracy Eradication Education and Roles of Government Agencies	40
Table 3-5 Division of Labor for Enforcing Illiteracy Eradication Movement	41
Table 3-6 Survey of Illiterate People	43
Table 3-7 Period, No. of Class, and No. of Teachers for Illiteracy Eradication Movement.....	45
Table 3-8 Korean Language Distribution after Liberation	45
Table 3-9 Literacy Education for Military Personnel.....	48
Table 3-10 Number of Army Personnel who took Literacy Education since the Founding of Armed Force.....	49
Table 3-11 Number of Army Personnel who completed Military Citizenship Training School.....	49
Table 3-12 Results of Literacy Survey	51
Table 3-13 Curriculum of Literacy Education of National Reconstruction Movement.....	55

Contents | LIST OF TABLES

Table 3-14 Korean Consultative Groups on Literacy Education	59
Table 3-15 Status of Literacy Educational Institutions in 1999.....	61
Table 3-16 Literacy Education Programs in Literacy Institutions in 1992.....	62
Table 3-17 Preliminary Survey of Illiteracy Situation	63
Table 3-18 Lifelong Education for Different Groups of Underprivileged People (2004)	65
Table 3-19 Indirect Support for Adult Literacy Education.....	67
Table 3-20 Support of State and Local Governments for Literacy Education	68
Table 3-21 Standards for Installation and Designation of Educational Program for Learning Characters	68
Table 3-22 Programs and Methods of Local Institutions in 2010	71
Table 3-23 Selected Types of Literacy Education Institutions (2010).....	80
Table 3-24 Current Status of Local Governments, Educational Institutions, and Learners Participating in Adult Literacy Education Programs	80
Table 3-25 Persons Completed Teachers Training Course for Literacy Education	81
Table 3-26 Literacy Textbooks for Elementary Course	82
Table 3-27 Primary Agency and Procedure of Recognition of Academic Background	84
Table 3-28 Participants by Age in National Writing Contest on Literacy Education	86

Chapter 4

Table 4-1 Changes of Illiteracy Rate among Korean Adults	93
Table 4-2 Total Population over 13 year-of-age and People who did not attend School (May, 1944)	94
Table 4-3 Progress of Enrollment Rate in 1970-2010	95
Table 4-4 The Status of Participation of Literacy Educational Institutions (National&Public and Private).....	99

Contents | LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 1

Figure 1-1 Study Strategy and Model	17
---	----

Chapter 2

Figure 2-1 Textbook distributed by Chosun Daily in the 1920s	25
--	----

Chapter 3

Figure 3-1 Article on Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education	35
Figure 3-2 Organization Chart of the Second National Illiteracy Eradication Movement	42
Figure 3-3 Article on Illiteracy Eradication Movement 1	46
Figure 3-4 Article on Illiteracy Eradication Movement 2	46
Figure 3-5 Awards Ceremony for Contributors to Literacy Education	47
Figure 3-6 An Article on Literacy Education for Military Recruits	48
Figure 3-7 University Students Performing Literacy Activities in 1962	55
Figure 3-8 Background of the Support Program for Adult Literacy Education	66
Figure 3-9 Major Bodies for Adult Literacy Education	69
Figure 3-10 Activities of Local Institutions in 2010	76
Figure 3-11 Adult Literacy Textbooks	83
Figure 3-12 National Writing Contest on Literacy Education	86

Chapter 4

Figure 4-1 Changes of Illiteracy Rate among Korean Adults	93
Figure 4-2 Progress of Enrollment Rate (1970-2010)	96
Figure 4-3 Progress of the Rate of Participation in Lifelong Learning (2000-2010)	97

Summary

Literacy is a prerequisite for every person to live beyond the level of the basic understanding of language and words. It is a basic premise of realizing the right to education as well as a basic capability to realize the value of democracy.

In Korea, the government started to implement the adult literacy education policy in the process of restoring the society after the Korean war. In order to eradicate illiteracy, Korea implemented a five year plan which successfully improved the literacy rate within a short period of time. However, despite its active implementation and success, during the period of national reconstruction, the policy was suspended in the process of economic development as the government lost interest in the plan. Nevertheless, after the concept of lifelong learning society was introduced in the nation, more attention was drawn to the right to learn and the importance of learning. This brought about more interest in adult literacy education, resulting in a further systematic policy. As Korea's policy for adult literacy education has played a pivotal role in the national policy for lifelong learning, the government has provided various policy supports by actively cooperating with private organizations.

The purpose of this study is to offer implications to other countries by making the Korean case of adult literacy education into a module. For this, the study focuses on two phases. The first phase covers how the nation had overcome the remains of the war through the government-led policy and the private-led movements for literacy education. The second phase focuses on how the government has systemized the policy for adult literacy education in the 2000s. Korea's case for forming and developing the policy for adult literacy education can surely help other developing countries to solve their literacy issues.

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
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Adult Literacy Education in Korea

Chapter 1

Introduction

1. The Object of Study
2. The Content of Study
3. Methodology of the Study

Introduction

1. The Object of Study

For many years, countries have strived to eradicate illiteracy through school education and social education. Adult literacy education^{1, 2} is not just about cultivating an ability to read and write but is laying a foundation for every education. Literacy is a basic premise of realizing the right to education for all people, as well as a basic capability to realize human growth, socio-economic development and the value of democracy (National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2009).

In Korea, adult literacy education has been carried out for seventy years through various movements such as illiteracy eradication movement and language dissemination movement during the late Chosun Dynasty and the Japanese colonization periods, the government-led

1 The concept of adult literacy education varies in different countries and organizations. According to Article 2 of Korea's Lifelong Education Act, the education for learning characters refers to a systematic education program for persons who experience inconveniences at home, in social, and occupational lives as they are short of basic abilities for carrying on their daily lives. Such education helps people be equipped with abilities to understand characters and improve the quality of their lives. Article 75 of Enforcement Decree of Lifelong Education Act stated that persons over 18 years in his/her full age are allowed to enter educational programs for learning characters, which is equivalent to the academic background of elementary school and middle school. In this sense, Korea's adult literacy education is an education program that aims to improve people's basic capability and provide additional education opportunities to adult learners over 18 years of age who are illiterate with low academic backgrounds (below elementary or middle school) and are uncomfortable in everyday lives because of the lack of basic literacy.

2 According to the OECD, literacy is "the ability to understand and utilize written materials in everyday life, family, workplace, and community, and to broaden a person's knowledge and potential." In case of Europe, the European council pointed out that in order to realize the lifelong learning society, every citizen should be equipped with basic skills to understand and utilize knowledge and information. The basic skills include 3R (reading, writing and arithmetic) as well as IT skills, foreign language, understanding techno-culture, entrepreneurship, and social skills (National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2009).

literacy education policy and the private-led literacy movement, the increased interest in literacy education from in and out of Korea after the 1980s, and the government-led adult literacy education programs since the mid-2000s. Although literacy education has subsided during the period of industrialization, the nation started to regain interest in adult literacy education with the advent of the lifelong learning society. In particular, the government started implementing the program of adult literacy education to develop the basic ability and realize a more integrated society. As such, adult literacy education has become an important pillar of the nation's policy for lifelong learning and has been carried out under various policy supports and the collaboration between the government and the private sector. In this sense, Korea's experience can surely provide useful implications to other developing countries who want to carry out adult literacy education.

In the context of lifelong learning, the adult literacy education is more about understanding different cultures and leading social and vocational lives effectively than about studying and acquiring academic backgrounds. Thus, in this age of globalization, it is closely related with people's everyday lives. It is certain that Korea can provide good examples to other countries who want to implement literacy education through national policies and private-led movements because Korea successfully carried out literacy education despite foreign influences, wars, and difficulties.

In conclusion, the study aims to analyze the adult literacy education policy and its outcome and provide implications to other countries.

2. The Content of Study

The contents of the study are as follows:

First, the study analyzed the historical background of literacy education in Korea. In order to study the root of Korea's literacy education, the study explored the progress of civil society-led campaigns such as the Korean dissemination movement, night schools, and illiteracy eradication movements which were carried out to restore the people's rights in the periods of the late Chosun dynasty and the Japanese colonization. The study also examined how the interim government executed literacy education during the U.S. military occupation period and the different kinds of approaches the constitutional government used for literacy education.

Second, the study analyzed the progress of the government's policy for literacy education. From the end of the Korean War to the 1960s, the government emphasized the five-year plan to eradicate illiteracy. After that, from the 1960s to 1980s, literacy education had been actively pursued by private groups and in the 1990s, new approach and policies appeared with regard to literacy education. The study also examined the progress and outcome of the government's support for literacy education.

Third, the study analyzed how the government formed policies for adult literacy education to establish systems and institutions. In the 2000s, the government gained more interest in lifelong learning and further systematized the policy for adult literacy education. Based on the survey of the literacy status in 2001 and 2002, standard textbooks were developed for illiterate people. The study also examined how the government built a system of recognizing the academic background for illiterate learners under the law.

Fourth, the study analyzed the progress and implications of adult literacy education in Korea. In the late 1980s, new approaches were introduced from international organizations such as UNESCO, International Council for Adult Education (ICAE), and the Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE). Along with this, Korea's literacy education was influenced by different circumstances and the globalization trend. Outcomes, challenges, and implications on adult literacy education are also presented in the study.

3. Methodology of the Study

The study used various methods.

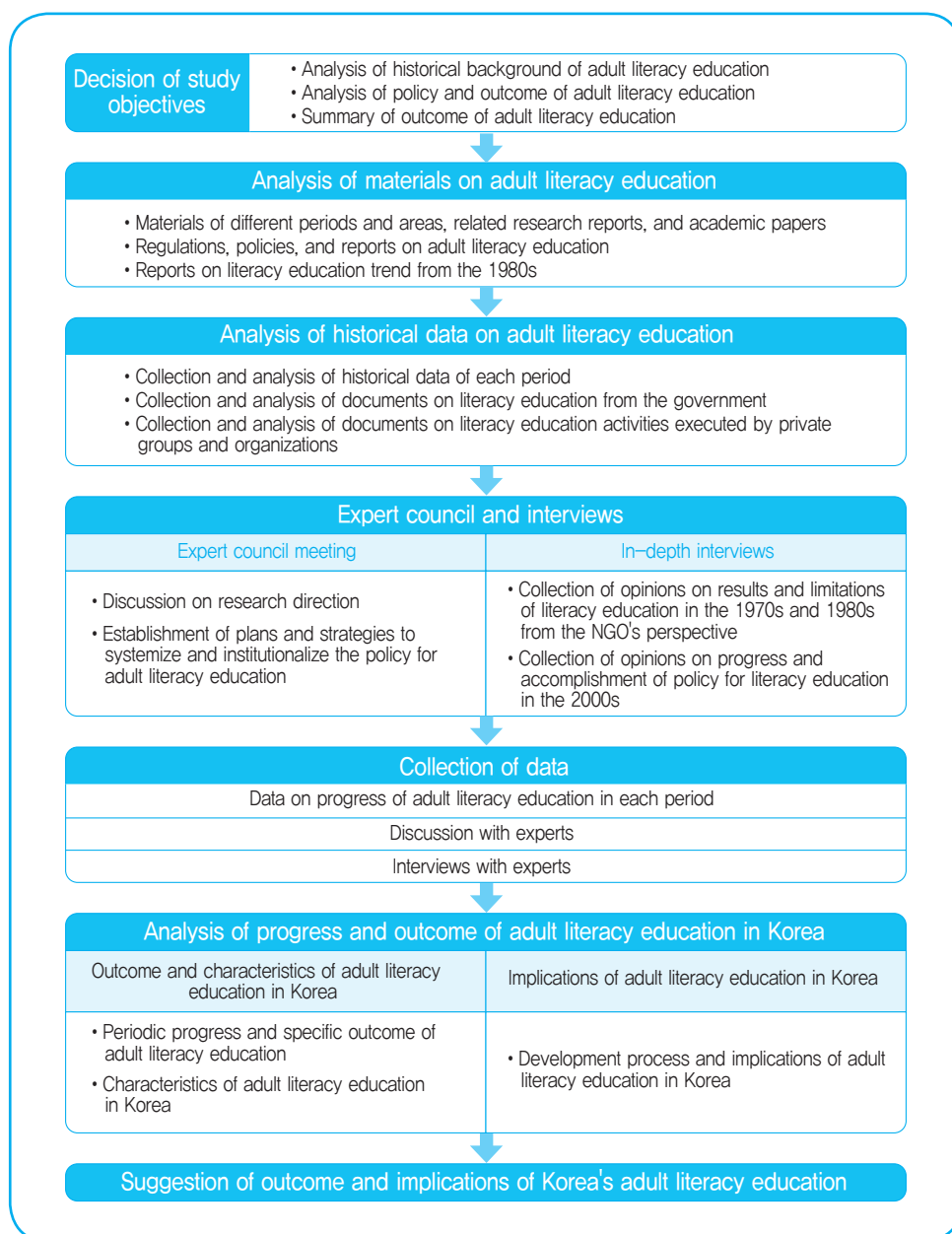
First, the study analyzed relevant literature on adult literacy education. For example, it examined literatures on historical development and the formation of adult literacy education, research reports, academic papers, literacy education-related laws and regulations, policies, and performance reports. In addition, the study analyzed the past and recent reports on literacy education from international organizations such as UNESCO, ICAE, and ASPBAE.

Second, the study analyzed historical materials on literacy education. For this, the study collected historical documents from the modern period to the present, various governmental policy documents, and other relevant documents from private organizations.

Third, the study conducted in-depth interviews with experts. Numerous people including participants and researchers in literacy education in the 1950s and 1960s, developers of textbooks and literacy programs in the 1970s and 1980s, and experts in non-governmental organizations participated in the interviews. The study also conducted interviews with policymakers and program experts to further examine the progress and outcome of the government's policies.

Fourth, the study held a council meeting with experts on adult literacy education. Experts gathered to discuss the research direction and methods of collecting and analyzing data and performance. They also shared opinions on developing systems and institutions of literacy education as well as collaborative relationships.

Figure 1-1 | Study Strategy and Model



2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
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Chapter 2

Background for Introducing Policy for Adult Literacy Education

1. Beyond the Pains of the Times
2. Development of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

Background for Introducing Policy for Adult Literacy Education

1. Beyond the Pains of the Times

Literacy is not just about the ability to understand language and characters but is about the basic education necessary for living an ordinary life in a society. In order to understand the background of the policy for adult literacy education, it is necessary to look at the Korean society which can be divided into three periods before the government of the Republic of Korea was established: the enlightenment period when the nation opened its culture, the Japanese occupation period, and the U.S. Military occupation period after the liberation.

1.1 From the Liberation to the Korean War

After years of traditional royal kingdom, Korea opened its doors to other countries and went into turbulence and turmoil. The country suffered from Japanese colonization and had to go through the pains of national separation.

1.1.1 Enlightenment Period: Literacy Education in the late Chosun Dynasty Era (from Ganghwa Treaty in 1876 until Annexation by Japan in 1910)

After its opening, Korea signed a number of trade agreements with Western countries in the 1880s and faced threats from powerful countries amid fierce competition between China and Japan in the 1890s. During the tumultuous years, countries such as China (the Qing Dynasty), Japan, and Russia competed to obtain the right to rule over Korea. Meanwhile, within Korea, the Gaehwapa (Enlightenment Party) group of reformers launched a coup d'état called the Gapsin coup on December 4, 1884. In the midst of confrontations between the liberal and the conservative, peasants staged an uprising called the Donghak Peasant Movement, which

led to the first Sino-Japan War (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). Having lost any possibility to restore its sovereignty, Korea signed a treaty with Japan, known as the Eulsa Treaty in 1905 and the Japan-Korea Annexation Treaty in 1910, which led to Japan's forced occupation. Through the years, people began to desire a modern society, forming a modern education structure. In pursuit of this, the religious side started providing literacy education through various activities.

Hangul, the Korean alphabet, was created in the mid-15th century, yet the language was not widely disseminated because the society thought highly of Chinese language and culture (Sung-Hoon Shin, 1992). As time went by, the dissemination of Hangul began to be recognized as a means of maintaining national independence (Jong-Seo Kim, 2001). In response to foreign influences, intellectuals, mainly from the Independence Club, focused on the issue of civil rights to accomplish the independence and modernization of the country (Sook-Ja Kim, 1983). As a part of restoring civil rights, numerous institutions carried out various programs including literacy education movements led by private institutions, Hangul dissemination movements led by newspaper companies, and literacy education activities performed by night schools and religious institutions. In the late Chosun dynasty, the nation experienced the formation of modern education system and the influence of religious groups in the society.

During that time, literacy education was carried out by various institutions as a part of the patriotic enlightenment movement. Private institutions thought that the only way to restore the society was to raise the standard of living and to enhance national prosperity and defense through people's enlightenment and education. The Independence Club and the People's Assembly took charge of the patriotic enlightenment movement in order to achieve governmental reform and the enhancement of civil rights as well as to awaken and foster the people (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). Furthermore, many private organizations were founded including the Korea Self-strengthening Society, the Korean Association, the New People's Association, Sowoo Educational Society, Sobuk Educational Society, and the Korean Association for Semiotic Studies. Those institutions held numerous meetings and open forums, and published bulletins.

Thanks to the language dissemination, more Korean newspapers such as Hansung Weekly, Hansung Daily, Maeil Daily, and The Independent were launched. Although the publication of these newspapers ceased within a short time, it made literacy education possible through papers accelerating the speed of the dissemination process. Written publications including poems, prose, and books also contributed to reforming people's consciousness as well as guiding people to appreciate the importance of being civilized and independent (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). On the whole, a significant meaning can be found in the publication in terms of public enlightenment and literacy education. In particular, The Independent emphasized that the nation's independence could only be attained through education and published a Korean edition to contribute to the literacy education.

Moreover, night schools played an important role in enlightening people through literacy education to achieve the goals of national prosperity and autonomy. In the late

Chosun period, approximately 1,000 night schools existed including Sechon night school and Gwangheung school established in 1899 (Hyung-Mog Kim, 2005). Night schools played a complementary role in providing education to people. Religious institutions also taught Korean grammar and dialogues in their effort to implement literacy education and enlightenment. Christian missionaries from overseas built a relationship with Korean pioneers and reached out by translating the Bible, contributing to the modernization of the general public and the dissemination of Korean language.

Private institutions formed by intellectuals contributed to raising the awareness of national autonomy by reviving the Korean language through literacy education. Most importantly, the general public led this education movement to reform their consciousness.

1.1.2 Literacy Education during the Japanese Occupation

The expansion of western imperialism made the world more complicated in the 19th century. Every ethnic group and nation stated that they were used to keeping their own culture while being forced to open its door to the imperialistic powers. Such outside pressure resulted in both positive and negative results. As it introduced western civilization such as democracy and Christianity, it also brought invasion and colonization to the country (Bok-Nam Yoon, 2001).

During the Japanese occupation,³ the Japanese Government General of Korea ruled the nation by the bayonet. Every education degenerated by forcing the Korean people into being imperialistic subjects and soldiers to win wars for Japan. The Japanese colonization period was truly a “dark period.”

According to a national census performed on October 1, 1930 and released in 1934, the illiteracy rate of Koreans excluding those of Japanese and foreigners reached 77.7% of the total population as of 1930; 63.9% of men and 92% of women were illiterate (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990).

By age, the most highly-illiterate group was preschool children (5-9 years) with 88.4%, followed by adults over 60 reaching 79.8% (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). In case of children

³ The Korean Youth Culture Research Institute divided the Japanese occupation period into three phases (1982). The first phase was the period of military rule from the annexation to the March 1st Independence movement of 1919. The second phase was the period of cultural politics from 1919 to 1931 when Japan invaded Manchuria. And the third phase was the wartime period from 1931 to 1945 when Japan was defeated in the second World War. During the first period, the Japanese government carried out a ruthless, military rule. There was no freedom of speech, assembly, or publication (In-Su Shon, 1987). The March First movement showed that Japan could no longer govern Korea by military power. For this reason, Japan thereafter adopted cultural administration and allowed freedom of education and media as well as the opening of schools and the publication of Korean newspapers. However, after Japan invaded Manchuria, it started its oppressive rule again and made every education a tool for imperialistic rule and winning at wars.

aged 10-14 years, who are supposed to receive compulsory education today, the illiteracy rate was 72.6%, close to that of people in their 40s and 50s with 73.4%. This result clearly shows the poor quality of elementary education during the Japanese occupation period.

Table 2-1 | Literate Population of Korea (As of October 1, 1930)

Country	Subjects	Population	Rate (%)
Literate People	Knowing only Korean	3,156,408	15.44
	Knowing both Korean and Japanese	1,387,408	6.78
	Knowing only Japanese	6,297	0.03
	Subtotal	4,549,981	22.30
Illiterate People	Men	-	63.9
	Women	-	92.0
	Subtotal	15,888,127	77.7
Total	Total Population	20,438,108	100.0

Sources: Bok-Nam Yoon (1990). A Study on Literacy Education in Korea from Socio-historical Point of View, Doctorate thesis, Korea University, p 86. National Census 1930 reported by Chosun Daily on December 22, 1934.

Table 2-2 | Literate Population of Korea (As of 1930)

Age	No. of Illiterate people	Rate of Illiteracy (%)
5 or younger	2,855,587	100.0
6-9	1,842,578	88.4
10-14	1,612,492	72.6
15-19	1,360,890	66.2
20-24	1,110,884	64.9
25-39	2,674,441	67.7
40-54	2,416,122	73.4
60 or older	1,015,121	79.8
Total	15,888,127	77.7

Data: National Census 1930. Chosun Daily on December 22, 1934.

Even in such dire situation, literacy education was kept alive in part through night schools, newspaper companies, and religious and private institutions. In contrast, the Japanese government implemented an approval system to repress night schools or other educational gatherings. The system regulated the purpose, period, and curriculum of each night school and dealt a blow to the opening and operation of night schools. As a result, night school activities became weaker in the 1930s. When the Japanese government suppressed village schools, more night schools were opened for farmers and workers. Despite the Japanese crackdown and repression, enlightenment movements managed to educate farmers and preschoolers (Bong-No Joo, 1996). For the same reason, various workshops and night classes were opened for the Korean people (Sung-Hoon Shin, 1992).

Table 2-3 | Number of Night Schools (1906~1931)

(Unit: Number)

1906-1919		1920-1931	
1906	2	1920	100
1907	2	1921	257
1908	6	1922	132
1909	4	1923	134
1910	-	1924	107
1911	4	1925	173
1912	-	1926	756
1913	4	1927	341
1914	2	1928	210
1915	3	1929	145
1916	5	1930	164
1917	3	1931	315
1918	4		
1919	12		
Total	51	Total	2,345

Source: Bong-No Joo (1996). A Study on Socio-educational Activity of Yahak during the Japanese Occupation. Social Science Review 5(1). p.153.

Newspaper companies such as Chosun Daily and Donga Daily took the lead in eradicating illiteracy. Since they published their first issues in 1920, both newspapers played an important role in enlightening the people for the nation's independence and modernization and eradicating illiteracy in the nation. For example, Chosun Daily carried out educational programs for students who had returned home for summer vacation from 1929 to 1934 (Bok-Nam Yoon, 2001). Also, Donga Daily supported student enlightenment groups in 1931 under the slogan “Vnarod.”⁴ Religious and private institutions also took part in literacy education, leading movements for enlightening farmers and eradicating illiteracy through night schools and workshops, publishing magazines, and releasing a proposal for the standard spelling system of Hangul.

Figure 2-1 | Textbook distributed by Chosun Daily in the 1920s



Source: <Today's World> Hangul distribution movement was recognized as a cultural independence movement as well as an illiteracy eradication movement. Chosun Daily on October 25, 2011.

⁴ Vnarod is a Russian word meaning “Into the people.” It refers to intellectuals or students who lived with workers and farmers and instructed them during the 19th century.

During the Japanese occupation period, literacy education was carried out through enlightenment movements for farmers and students, night schools and workshops as well as religious and private institutions. The education aroused national consciousness for independence and modernization by encouraging more people to join the education. However, private literacy education activities started losing grounds from the 1930s due to Japan's strict policies.

Table 2-4 | Characteristics of Illiteracy Education in the Japanese Occupation Period

Contents	Characteristics	
	Private-led education	Religious group-led education
Objective	Cultivating the spirit of independence and improving everyday life	Acquiring new knowledge and Christian mission
Institution	Newspapers (Donga Daily and Chosun Daily), social groups, village schools, informal organizations	Night schools, short courses, churches, Sunday schools
Subject	Read, write, arithmetic, skills	Basic knowledge
Method	Lesson, discussion, presentation, reading, self-study	Class, remote learning, propaganda
Material	Korean textbooks, enlightening books	Newspapers, magazines, the Bible
Instructor	Newspaper reporters, volunteers, school teachers	Managers, church leaders

Source: Bok-nam Yoon (2001). Literacy Education Movement in Korea before the National Liberation. p.40.

1.2. The U.S. Military Occupation and Establishment of the Government of the Republic of Korea (The U.S. Military Occupation-1950)

1.2.1 Social and Political Necessity of Literacy Education

After the nation's liberation in 1945, Korea was under trusteeship of the U.S. army and the Soviet Union army. Within the nation, Korean leaders fought against one another for more powers. For five short years, from the liberation to the period before the Korean war, the whole nation was in political turmoil caused by the separation of the country, the establishment of the government, and ideological conflicts.

The 36-year Japanese occupation left a legacy of poverty, illiteracy, and separation (Hee-Su Lee, 1996). Especially, the issue of illiteracy was a political burden because the introduction and establishment of American style democracy required at least the minimum

level of political knowledge. Considering the low rate of illiterate people at the time,⁵ literacy education was treated as an important part of political socialization, which consisted of language education as well as education for ideology, anticommunism, and politics. Many leaders from political parties, organizations, press, political circles, and other social groups stressed the necessity and importance of literacy education. Political leaders thought that the purpose of literacy education was not only to teach how to read and write but to cultivate citizenship based on the knowledge of politics, economy, society, science, and common sense so as to educate citizens who could fit into a democratic country. During that time, the left wing regarded literacy education as a political liberation movement whereas the right wing maintained its conventional way of thinking that it was just character learning (Hee-Su Lee, 1996).

In the academic sector, Korea's representative scholars raised their voices by claiming that literacy education could be a shortcut to a democratic country and should be carried out in that regard. A scholar named Hyun-Bae Choi emphasized the importance of edification through Hangul. Chun-Suk Oh stated the urgency and diversity of adult literacy education and Man-Gyu Lee said that adult literacy movement was important to establish a democratic nation.

In the public media, newspapers including Donga Daily, Chosun Daily, Freedom News, Hansung Daily, The Independent, Liberation Daily, Women News, Saehan, and Farmers Weekly strongly insisted adult education in terms of improving the situation of literacy and citizenship by disseminating Korean language and enlightening farmers. Education for adults was regarded as an important tool to achieve the nation's political and social tasks. Without a doubt, the government had special interest in literacy education (Hee-Su Lee, 1996).

In essence, the purpose of literacy education in this period was complete eradication of illiteracy along with education of democracy. To achieve such purpose, efforts were made in five categories: developing adult education programs, nurturing instructors, operating language schools, publishing textbooks, and providing training sessions for general election (Jong-Seo Kim, 2001).

1.2.2 Formation and Development of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

Literacy education was carried out in the process of establishing an exclusive administrative agency, implementing programs, establishing citizenship training schools, nurturing adult education teachers, and operating Korean language schools.

a. Exclusive Administrative Agency for Literacy Education

In November 1945, the Adult Education Section was installed under the Culture Division of the Education and Management Bureau. Its main goal was to lead a campaign for

⁵ The rate of illiterate people over 12 years old reached almost 78% of the total population [Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education, 2005].

eradicating illiteracy in South Korea. In the early 1946, the Section was elevated to the Adult Education Division with two sections: public education and re-education. The Adult Education Committee was operated with 12 members including six administrative staffs of the bureau and six outside experts for six months. Its main task was to set the overall direction and concept of the illiteracy eradication program, adjust effective administration for adult education, and monitor literacy programs (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo, 2001). In addition to this, the committee invited foreigners as advisors and declared the Adult Education Week in 1946. Alongside, scholars, educators, and administrators also joined in eradicating illiteracy. As the Bureau was reorganized as the Ministry of Education, the Adult Education Division was reformed as the Adult Education Bureau. This Bureau was reorganized into the Society and Education Bureau, and the Adult Education Division was installed within this newly organized Bureau. After the establishment of the South Korean government, the Society and Education Bureau was reorganized as the Culture Bureau. Since then, the Adult Education Division has taken charge of every administrative activity related to literacy education.

b. Literacy Education Programs for Different Generations and Population Segments

Various programs have been developed for literacy education. First, public education program was implemented for illiterate adults in the newly-established citizenship training schools. Second, re-education program was carried out in each province to teach the concept of democracy, human rights, and freedom for adults and foreigners who experienced the Japanese occupation period as well as people from North Korea. Third, factory schools were installed to teach teenagers from 13 to 16 years old working in factories. Fourth, prison schools were introduced to teach prison inmates various skills and techniques (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo, 2001).

c. Establishment of Citizenship Training Schools

First built in 1946, citizenship training schools were the foundation for eradicating illiteracy under the guideline for adult education planned by the Ministry of Culture and Education. As the basic structure for adult enlightenment, the purpose of the school was to cultivate citizenship through teaching literacy, history, and improving the standard of living. As small institutes and schools were integrated, the number of citizenship training schools increased to 8,000 in 1947. These schools had three programs including youth program, adult program, and continuing education program. Youth and adult programs focused on literacy and basic education for youths and adults who had not received elementary school education. Continuing education program was for youths who had graduated from elementary schools but failed to go to middle schools. As the Education Act was promulgated in December 1949, the characteristics and purpose of citizenship training schools were clearly defined and institutionalized (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990).

d. Nurturing Adult Education Teachers

Another major policy implemented by the Ministry of Culture and Education was to nurture and deploy adult education teachers. From the summer of 1946, the government-led adult education started to extensively eradicate illiteracy as well as foster people to become citizens of a democratic nation (Hee-Su Lee, 1996). The Adult Education Bureau took charge of training leaders whose role was to train local leaders responsible of teaching in neighborhoods and villages of provincial areas.

Table 2-5 | Status of Local Instructors (1947)

	Instructors in Gu, Eup, Myun		Instructors in Ri, Dong		Total	
	No. of workshops	No. of participants	No. of workshops	No. of participants	No. of workshops	No. of participants
Gyeonggi	95	2,568	147	5,307	242	7,875
Gangwon	35	887	132	2,927	167	3,814
Chungbuk	26	649	30	1,502	56	2,151
Chungnam	50	254	418	5,318	468	5,572
Jeonnam	25	430	230	6,616	255	7,046
Jeju	-	-	20	423	20	423
Total	231	4,778	977	22,093	1,208	22,881

Source: Hee-Su Lee (1996). Research Institute of Korean Education, Chung-Ang University (1968). Mungyosa. Seoul: Chung-Ang University Press. p 106.

e. Operation of Korean Language School

During the period of the U.S. military occupation, Korean language schools throughout the country played an intermediary role in adult literacy and basic education. Such language schools were built in villages (according to the Korean district system: Gu, Eup, Myun, Ri, and Dong) and elementary schools. Certified teachers, each male and female were assigned to each city and Gun while eligible locals to villages, Ri, and Dong. These teachers held workshops or meetings at town halls and schools, using textbooks entitled “Hangul Basics” or “Hangul Reading.”

1.2.3 Significance of Adult Literacy Education from the U.S. Military Occupation to 1950

In order to exercise one’s freedom as well as to establish and operate a democratic system after the liberation of the country, it was urgent to foster citizenship among people and teach

Korean language, which was the basis of every education (Sung-Hoon Shin, 1992). To achieve political socialization, the U.S. military government pursued the literacy education program in an active and strong manner at the government level. Literacy education was used as both a medium for enlightenment and growth of people as well as a political tool for legislation and election campaign. Amidst intense ideological conflicts, each side took a different approach to literacy education. During this period, literacy education served as a tool for the nation rather than individual learners.

2. Development of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

2.1. Background of Policy Introduction

In 1948, the government of the Republic of Korea was established and the government started making further efforts to build an independent nation. In its efforts, the nation put emphasis on educational reform because not many people were able to benefit from modern education during the 36-year Japanese colonization. As the Japanese colonial government had applied strict policies toward Korea, general schools were no longer allowed to teach Korean language to students. As a result, right after the liberation, the rate of illiteracy reached 78%. To resolve this issue, the government made an effort to eradicate illiteracy by establishing compulsory elementary education and providing literacy education to adults over school age.

In 1949, one year after the establishment of the South Korean government, the Education Act was enacted both to strengthen compulsory education and to support literacy education for adults. In terms of early policy for literacy education, the Act was significant because it contained a basic direction for the education. Based on the Act, this policy further expanded all over the country in the 1950s.

2.2. Contents of the Education Act

The Education Act that was enacted in 1949 contained provisions related to literacy education. First, the Act states the nation's duty related to compulsory education. Article 16 of the Constitution that was proclaimed in 1948 when the Republic of Korea was established stipulates as follows:

“All citizens shall have an equal right to receive education according to their abilities. All citizens shall receive at least the minimum level of elementary school education, which is compulsory and free of charge.”

Article 8 of the Education Act stipulates as follows:

“All citizens shall receive elementary school education for six years. The State and local governments shall establish and manage schools and institutions for elementary education.

Guardians such as parents shall have rights and obligations to provide the children under their care with elementary school education” (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988).

Second, the Act contains provisions for “eradicating illiteracy.” Article 139 stipulates that citizenship training schools shall have adult classes which purpose is to make adults who never received any elementary education understand Korean language. Also, Article 140 stipulates that every citizen over school age who was born after January 1, 1910 shall enroll in the adult class. Moreover, Regulation 172 states class hours and the curriculum of adult classes as follows (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1966; Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988):

- Class Hours: Minimum 200 hours, less than 70 days. Classes shall be open in off-season of summer and winter to avoid busy farming seasons. Daily class hours: 3 hours a day on average.
- Subjects for Adult Class: Korean Language, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science. Major focus is to learn characters (Regulation 172).

Regulations 172 and 173 also stipulate how to provide literacy education to students in adult classes of citizenship training schools. According to these Regulations, any citizenship training school must be authorized by the mayor of Seoul Metropolitan City, the mayor of Busan City, or a provincial governor. Mayors, district executives (Eup), and town chiefs (Myun) are obliged to survey the list of candidates for adult classes and notify the list to principals of citizenship training schools and candidates who should take adult courses or persons who are responsible for sending the candidates (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1966).

In conclusion, the government of the Republic of Korea made efforts to achieve elementary-level education as common education by strengthening compulsory education and modifying laws and regulations to provide literacy education for adults over school age. Though this grand plan floundered due to the outbreak of the Korean War on June 25, 1950, it was implemented again in an effort to rebuild the country after the War.

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Development Process and Outcomes of
Adult Literacy Education in Korea

Chapter 3

Implementation of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

1. Literacy Education during National Restoration Period
2. Literacy Education in the Economic Development Period
3. Adult Literacy Education since the 1990s

Implementation of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

1. Literacy Education during National Restoration Period

1.1 Making Efforts for Restoring the Nation

As the Korean War broke out, schools were demolished and the whole nation turned into battlefields. Consequently, the policy for literacy education came to a halt for a while except for, young men in their 20s and 30s who were recruited for battle (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988).

In 1951, the government announced the “Wartime Education Special Measure Guideline,” which stated the plans to build education facilities destroyed during the war and support student refugees.⁶

In 1952, the government installed citizenship training schools affiliated with elementary schools in the nation, opening adult classes. Again, such literacy education was not for every citizen but for illiterate men from 17 to 43 years old who were obliged to fight in war, which reflected the uniqueness of the time (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1966).

The three-year Korean War ended on July 27, 1953 by the Armistice Agreement, and the South Korean government started implementing literacy education extensively. The policy for literacy education after the war is summarized as follows:

First, the government sought to improve the general level of education for school-age children and youths by strengthening compulsory education at the elementary level. To accomplish this, the government implemented the “Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education” from 1954 to 1959, and operated citizenship training schools for adults who passed school age.

⁶ The guideline stated the following eight points: ① Encouraging student refugees to go to school, ② Installing temporary classrooms and schools, ③ Accepting students defected from North Korea, ④ Building ad hoc schools in cities, ⑤ Operating wartime universities, ⑥ Building school buildings with raw bricks, ⑦ Planning to build temporary school buildings and 1,000 classrooms, and ⑧ Publishing and distributing textbooks in wartime (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988).

Second, the government provided literacy education for adults over school-age by implementing the “Five-year Plan for Eradicating Illiteracy in the Nation” from 1954 to 1958.

Third, the army base became one of the most important pillars of the policy for literacy education in the 1950s. During the war, young adults became the major target for literacy education as a way to build up military strength.⁷

1.2 Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education and Citizenship Training School

The Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education aimed to provide the elementary-level of education to school-age children by the Education Act enacted and promulgated in 1949 with regards to the duty and responsibility of the State and local governments. Establishing the legal basis for universal compulsory education at the elementary level, the Act plainly stated that persons with parental rights and guardians should ensure school-aged children to receive school education for free of charge. The Act initiated compulsory education as of June 1, 1950 and the Ministry of Culture and Education planned to start the Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education from the specified date under the Act.

Figure 3-1 | Article on Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education



Source: June 2, 1950. Kyunghyang Shinmun.

However, due to the outbreak of the Korean War on June 25, 1950, the plan fell through from the beginning. As a result, the rate of enrollment in compulsory education dropped right after the war was over, compared to when the government was established in 1948 <Table3-1>. demonstrates the enrollment rates.

⁷ In the period of national restoration, the government as well as private organizations such as Chosun Language Academy and Literacy Association pursued literacy education from the point of liberation to the 1950s (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). This study will focus mainly on the national policy rather than the role of private organizations.

Table 3-1 | The Rate of Enrollment in Compulsory Education

Year	No. of Students	Rate (%)
1945 (After the Liberation)	1,572,046	64%
1948 (After Establishment of Government)	2,405,301	74.8%
1951 (Right after the Korean War)	1,073,844	69.8%

Source: Ministry of Culture and Education (1988). 40-year History of Ministry of Culture and Education. Ministry of Culture and Education. p 151. Partially revised.

As Regulations for Education Act was enacted in April 1952 and the educational autonomy system was established in June of the same year, the government made further effort to officially expand compulsory education. The expansion of compulsory education became the major task of the Ministry of Culture and Education in the 1950s. More importantly, the Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education was implemented in order to raise the rate of enrollment up to 96% within six years from 1954 to 1959 and to secure insufficient educational facilities and teachers. In fact, the plan was quite successful as the rate of enrollment rose from 72.9% in 1953 to 96.4% in 1959 when the plan was completed (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988).⁸

Table 3-2 | Yearly Increase of the Number of Enrolled Children (1954~1959)

Year	No. of School-Age Children	No. of Enrolled Children	Rate
1953	3,096,293	2,259,313	72.9
1954	3,246,364	2,678,978	82.5
1955	3,289,865	2,947,436	89.5
1956	3,333,949	2,997,813	89.9
1957	3,480,225	3,170,891	91.1
1958	3,583,427	3,315,989	92.5
1959	3,799,690	3,558,142	96.4

Source: Ministry of Culture and Education (1988). 40-year History of Ministry of Culture and Education. Ministry of Culture and Education. p 153.

⁸ Only a few schools were built because of lack of finance. The number of elementary schools in 1948, when the government was established, was 3,400 and rose by 134.5% to 4,574 in 1959. The result was quite an accomplishment but did not meet the initial target of 4,614 [Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988].

Likewise, compulsory education of the 1950s was significant for adult literacy education at the elementary level. As school-aged children could finish education at the elementary-level, the government could secure the public education system at the universal level by raising the rate of adult literacy in the long run.

While making progress for school-aged children through compulsory education, citizenship training schools provided education for adults over school-age. Article 138 of the Education Act stipulated that the purpose of citizenship training schools was “to provide both general and civil education to persons who passed school-age without receiving elementary education or to the general public” (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). In adult classes, persons who were born after 1910 (under 40 years of age) and passed school-age were eligible to learn Korean, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science, and other subjects for over 200 hours within 70 days. In addition to this, the government installed special classes to eradicate illiteracy from the nation in 1954.

Unlike the rise of enrollment rate in compulsory education, that of citizenship training schools drastically decreased. According to the statistics, 788,801 students went to 3,125 citizenship training schools in 1953 right after the Korean War was over. Yet, this number started to decline from 1954 and eventually 186,366 students enrolled to 2,309 schools in 1959 (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). Nevertheless, citizenship training school played an important part as an institution of literacy education, especially for adults in the 1950s <Table 3-3>. shows the number of schools, teachers and students in the 1950s.⁹

Table 3-3 | Yearly Statistics of Citizenship Training School (1953~1959)

Year	No. of School	No. of Teachers	No. of Students
1953	3,125	-	788,801
1954	2,976	-	222,200
1955	2,532	1,647	224,213
1956	3,228	1,647	256,951
1957	2,861	5,713	229,714
1958	2,309	5,713	186,366
1959	1,745	4,860	186,366

Source: Bok-Nam Yoon (1990). A Study on Literacy Education in Korea from Socio-historical Point of View, Doctorate thesis, Korea University, p 125.

⁹ After the 1960s, the number of citizenship training schools has dropped and since 1989, there is only one citizenship training school left.

1.3 Five-year Plan for Eradicating Illiteracy: 1954-1958

1.3.1 Literacy Education after the Korean War

By the Education Act enacted in 1949, the government implemented policies both for providing basic education to school-aged children and for improving literacy for youths and adults who had passed school age. Initially, the government planned to provide literacy education through adult classes in citizenship training schools, but after the Korean War broke out, literacy education was provided mainly for male adults. The government could implement the policy for eradicating illiteracy in full-scale after the war ended.

In order to make both male and female adults learn and understand Korean, the government began to install Korean language schools throughout the nation since February 1953, educating male and female students over 12 years old. The adult class at citizenship training school was for persons over 17 years old, and the Korean language school was for those over 12 years old who did not attend elementary school.

In addition to this, the government distributed Korean language textbooks. In February 1953, 840,000 textbooks were delivered to 42,000 educational institutions. Thanks to the aid fund from the United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA), the government published 150,000 copies of Korean Basics and 150,000 copies of Korean Reading, and distributed them through the Ministry of Culture and Education. The publication and distribution cost 15,469 US dollars (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1958). The Korean language school did not last long. As the government pursued literacy education extensively from 1954, Korean language schools stopped being operated (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1966).

1.3.2 National Movement for Eradicating Illiteracy

In order to reduce the illiteracy rate, which reached 78% after the liberation, the government established a five-year plan for illiteracy eradication as follows.

First, the government aimed to provide compulsory education for all citizens. Under the Education Act, the government focused on a policy for establishing the basic education system in the 1950s (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1988). The government hence included a six-year plan for compulsory education in the policy of school education and a five-year plan for eradicating illiteracy in the policy of social education.

Second, the government tried to provide all citizens with basic literacy skills to help them become democratic citizens. As citizens of a democratic republic, Korean people had the right and duty to select civil servants by national elections. However, if the illiteracy rate were too high, a normal election would be out of the question. Therefore, before the lower house election in 1954, the Ministry of Culture and Education announced a campaign to eradicate the voting practice of using symbols mainly because too many citizens were illiterate (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). In the same year, the government announced the second

national illiteracy eradication plan and strived to crusade against it before the upper house election (Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information, 1954).

Third, the political competition between South Korea and North Korea accelerated the implementation of literacy education. After the separation of the Korean peninsula, South and North chose different ideologies and fiercely fought against each other during wartime from 1950 to 1953. Prior to this, the North announced that it had completed the task of eradicating illiteracy in March 1949 (Hang-Gyu Lee, 2001; Oh-Gap Lee, 2007).

In the context, the national movement for eradicating illiteracy was decided by the Cabinet meeting on February 16, 1954. Using the reserve fund, the government executed the movement for five years from 1954 to 1958 (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1958).

1.3.3 Activities of Illiteracy Eradication Movement

The national movement for eradicating illiteracy was part of the nation's literacy education policy carried out since the establishment of the government. The government expanded its initial plan of eradicating illiteracy to the installation of education classes throughout the nation through adult classes in citizenship training schools. The government stated its intention in the Monthly Bulletin of Culture and Education.

The government carried out the education for eradicating illiteracy plan since 1954. This was not a new movement but an expansion of adult classes in citizenship training schools. The government cooperated with other government agencies such as the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Ministry of Defense, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Social Affairs, and the Bureau of Public Information. In particular, the success of the movement was greatly indebted to the contribution of school teachers (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1958).

In principle, the national movement was executed by the guideline for adult class operation in citizenship training schools. The government opened classes in each village and town for 70-90 days during the off-seasons of summer and winter, teaching literacy and numeracy skills and basic knowledge that could meet the level of second grade in elementary school.

According to the yearly development report, there was a big difference in the target between before and after 1955. In 1954, the major recipients were illiterate people over 19 years of age (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1953) whilst after 1955, the movement included youths over 12 years of age who did not attend school.

Table 3-4 | Contents of Illiteracy Eradication Education and Roles of Government Agencies

Year	Contents
1 st Year 1954	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Executed by the Ministry of Culture and Education, the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Ministry of Defense. - Operated for 75 days from March 18 to May 31, 1954. - Spent 47,000,000 Korean Won from the reserve fund. - The Ministry of Culture and Education provided courses; the other ministries encouraged people to take these courses.
2 nd Year 1955	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Operated for illiterate men and women over 12 years of age for 81 days from March 12 to May 31, 1955. - The Ministry of Culture and Education provided courses, the Ministry of Home Affairs encouraged people to take them, and the Bureau of Public Information was in charge of promotion.
3 rd Year 1956	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Supervised by the Ministry of Culture and Education and supported by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, and the Ministry of Home Affairs. - Operated for 71 days from January 20 to March 31, 1956. - Target age group: 12-45 years
4 th Year 1957	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Operated for 90 days from January 20 to April 20, 1957 by the Ministry of Culture and Education. - Target age group: 12-45 years old
5 th Year 1958	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Executed by the Ministry of Culture and Education, the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Bureau of Public Information. - Operated for 70 days from January 21 to March 31, 1958. - Target group: Illiterate men and women over 12 years old.

Source: Jong-Geon Hwang (1966). Social Education in Korea. Central Education Research Institute. pp. 97-8.

1.3.4 Structure of Illiteracy Eradication Movement¹⁰

The movement for eradicating illiteracy was carried out by the local administrative system in the nation. The Ministry of Culture and Education was in charge of planning and executing the basic plan and other agencies joined as supporting bodies including the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Ministry of Defense, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery, and the Bureau of Public Information. The basic structure for the Second National Illiteracy Eradication Plan is as follows (Ministry of Culture and Education et al., 1954).

¹⁰ This section is based on government materials including Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information (1954). Cabinet meeting agenda: The Second National illiteracy eradication plan. Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information.

a. Enforcement and Supervision: Central Government, Cities and Provinces, Gun

The basic structure of the illiteracy eradication movement can be categorized into central government, cities and provinces, and Gun (county). At the government level, the Ministry of Culture and Education, the Ministry of Home Affairs, and the Bureau of Public Information worked together in order to implement the program. The Ministry of Culture and Education supervised the whole project; the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Bureau of Public Information took charge of implementing and promoting the project; and the Ministry of Home Affairs helped mobilize the administrative system.

In cities and provinces, the mayor of Seoul Metropolitan City and each provincial governor took charge of illiteracy eradication movement within their jurisdiction. At local governments, the commissioner of education or the commissioner of culture, education, and society took the lead in the project. Each police chief also led the project under the auspices of police commissioners. In conjunction with this, the Director of Home Affairs gave directions to mayors and chiefs of Gun (county) under their corresponding jurisdiction and broadcasting companies promoted the purpose of the project in the society.

At the county or Gun level, superintendents planned and implemented the project within the jurisdiction. Chiefs of Gun encouraged chiefs of township to join the project and police chiefs made the chief of each police substation promote the project and encourage more people to join the project.

In short, the movement was carried out under the cooperation of all administrative agencies in the nation.

b. Enforcement and Supervision: Cities, Gu, Eup

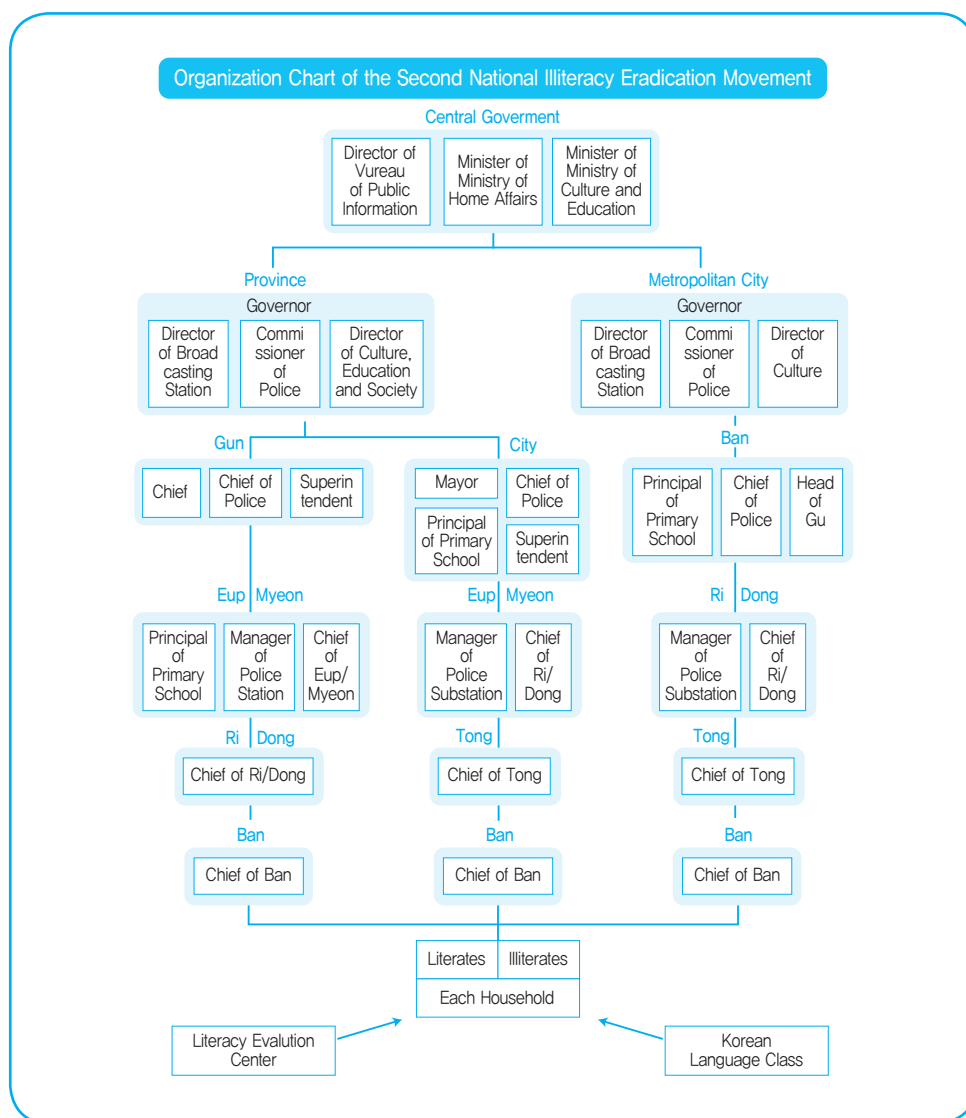
At the city level, the superintendent of city education committee took charge of planning and enforcement in close cooperation with the city mayor, police chiefs, and principals of elementary schools. At the district and town level, leaders of local organizations, schools, and police stations participated in the project. Particularly, in case of Ri and Dong, the lowest administrative units, heads of villages called Rijang or Dongjang took charge of encouraging people to study and surveying the list of illiterate people while cooperating with leaders of neighborhoods called Tongjang or Banjang <Table 3-5>. summarizes the division of labor (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1954).

Table 3-5 | Division of Labor for Enforcing Illiteracy Eradication Movement

Role	Responsibility
Survey, Planning, Finance	Superintendents of city education committee, heads of Gu or district, chiefs of towns
Promotion and Encouragement	Chief of police station (Police station, police substation, precinct station).
Education	Principals of elementary schools

Not only administrative units but also individuals and social organizations joined the movement; teachers and students of each school, the Korean Adult Education Association, the Korea National Society, the Korea Wives' Association, the Korea Young Women's Association, other social organizations, members of board of education, rural guidance personnel, and community leaders all participated in the movement. [Figure 3-1] represents the organization chart of the central and local units.

Figure 3-2 | Organization Chart of the Second National Illiteracy Eradication Movement



Source: Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information (1954). Cabinet meeting agenda: The Second national illiteracy eradication plan. Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information. p 303.

c. Survey and Encouragement of Illiterate People

Because every citizen in the nation was the main target of the project, it was important to find illiterate people and help them receive proper education. In this regard, a general administrative system was required even though the project itself was governed by the Ministry of Culture and Education.

According to the second plan, chiefs of dong or neighborhoods surveyed both literate and illiterate people over 12 years of age by a questionnaire. For adults over 19 years of age, people who did not join the first program or failed to complete the course were the main target. Also, people from 12 to 18 years of age were surveyed for their literacy.

Table 3-6 | Survey of Illiterate People

(Name of District)

District \ Contents	No. of Literate People			No. of Illiterate people (People who do not know Korean)																	
	12-18 ages			12-18			19-30			31-43			44-50			60-			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T

(M: Male, F: Female, T: Total)

Source: Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information (1954).
Cabinet meeting agenda: The Second National Illiteracy Eradication Plan. Ministry of Culture and Education, Ministry of Home Affairs, Bureau of Public Information. p 331.

To sort out illiterate people, every person was subject to an evaluation process. On the evaluation day in each village (Ri or Dong), people were asked to take a test corresponding to the level of second grade in elementary school. If a person was evaluated as literate, then his or her identification card would indicate the evaluation result as “literate person.” In case of teenagers under 14 years of age who did not have an identification card, or people who were not students, a “literacy certificate” was issued.

On the other hand, if a person was evaluated as illiterate, then the superintendent, or the chief of the district or town of the illiterate person was to inform the householder or the employer that the person was evaluated as “illiterate” and therefore required to take literacy education five days prior to the literacy class opening day. The project was also informed through notices, leaflets, placards, workshops, symposiums, etc. Police chiefs encouraged people to participate in the program and police officers would even question people on the street in order to find people who could not or did not join the program.

d. Operation of Korean Education Class

In making efforts to eradicate illiteracy at the national level, the government installed education classes. The first phase of the literacy plan included the basic direction of how to utilize citizenship training schools and elementary schools; the second phase of the plan included detailed direction of the plan (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1953; Ministry of Culture and Education and others, 1954). According to the second phase, more than two classes were installed in each district (Ri and Dong) which could accommodate 30 people on average and was separately operated by gender and age. Additionally, local schools and public spaces were used for classes. For these classes, each facility hung up a sign, “Korean Education Class No. X, X-dong, X-ri” written in Korean. Classes were also opened in the workplace where a number of illiterate people worked under active support of the employers.

e. Appointment of Teachers and Operation of Classes

As a national project, every eligible person for teaching was mobilized in the program. According to the Second National Illiteracy Eradication Plan, elementary school teachers as well as citizenship training school teachers and higher civic school teachers were all recruited to teach illiterate people. Moreover, school, staffs and students as well as civil servants and the general public who had teaching skills and good personality could join the program as instructors by the appointment of the superintendent or the district chief. Principals of elementary schools had to inspect and guide the classes and appointed teachers to be responsible for the classes.

In principle, the total class hours were 120 hours and the opening date of class could be adjusted according to the condition of each region. After completing the course, students had to take a qualification exam and the principal of each school decided who would pass or fail. If a student still lacked literacy skills after completing the course, he or she was advised to take additional courses.

The Ministry of Culture and Education developed and distributed textbooks such as Hangul Reading for Korean Language Class (1954), Hangul Reading for Adult Class (1955), and Hangul Reading with Pictures (1956) (Jae-Young Huh, 2004).

1.3.5 Accomplishment of National Illiteracy Eradication Movement

With the movement, 20,000-80,000 classes had opened for 70-90 days and the number of teachers ranged from 20,000-90,000. <Table 3-7> illustrates the details of the movement for each year.

Table 3-7 | Period, No. of Class, and No. of Teachers for Illiteracy Eradication Movement

Year	Period	No. of Class	No. of Teacher
1 st	Mar.-May., 1954 [75 days]	84,192	88,700
2 nd	Mar.-May., 1955 [81 days]	62,192	65,168
3 rd	Jan.-Mar., 1956 [71 days]	-	-
4 th	Jan.-Mar., 1957 [90 days]	20,694	24,345
5 th	Jan.-Apr., 1958 [70 days]	33,186	39,364

Source: Bok-Nam Yoon (1990). A Study on Literacy Education in Korea from Socio-historical Point of View, Doctorate thesis, Korea University. p 119.

According to the government, this was a phenomenal achievement as the illiteracy rate had dropped 4.1% after carrying out the project for five years from 1954 to 1958. In fact, compared to that of previous years, the rate was 78% in 1945 when the nation was liberated from Japanese colonization, 41% in 1948 when the nation established its government, and 25.6% in 1953 before the government started its first plan. Needless to say, this was a great success.

Table 3-8 | Korean Language Distribution after Liberation

Year	Total Population	No. of Literate People	No. of Illiterate People	Rate (%)	Others
1945	10,253,138	2,272,236	7,980,902	78	After liberation
1948	13,087,405	7,676,325	5,411,080	41	After establishment of government
1953	12,269,739	9,124,480	3,145,259	26	Before 1 st phase plan
1954	12,269,739	10,560,719	1,709,020	14	Before 2 nd phase plan
1955	12,269,739	10,745,698	1,524,041	12	Before 3 rd phase plan
1956	13,911,678	12,492,773	1,418,905	10	Before 3 rd phase plan
1957	13,713,873	12,568,590	1,145,283	8.3	Before 4 th phase plan
1958	13,713,873	13,150,891	562,982	4.1	After 5 th phase plan

Note: Over 12 years old. As of 1958, 2.8% of men and 5.3% of women were illiterate and 66% of all illiterate people were women.

Source: Ministry of Culture and Education (1958a). Overview of Culture and Education. Ministry of Culture and Education. p 463.

Figure 3-3 | Article on Illiteracy Eradication Movement 1



Source: May 17, 1954. Kyunghyang Shinmun.

Figure 3-4 | Article on Illiteracy Eradication Movement 2



Source: August 15, 1954. Kyunghyang Shinmun.

Figure 3-5 | Awards Ceremony for Contributors to Literacy Education



Source: National Archives of Korea website (<http://contents.archives.go.kr>)

According to the statistics, the number of illiterate people was about 560,000 and the number of persons who could not go to school was about 200,000 as of 1958. Based on this data, the government estimated 360,000 people as future candidates for literacy education (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1958a) and assessed the illiteracy eradication movement as highly successful.

1.4 Literacy Education for Military Personnel

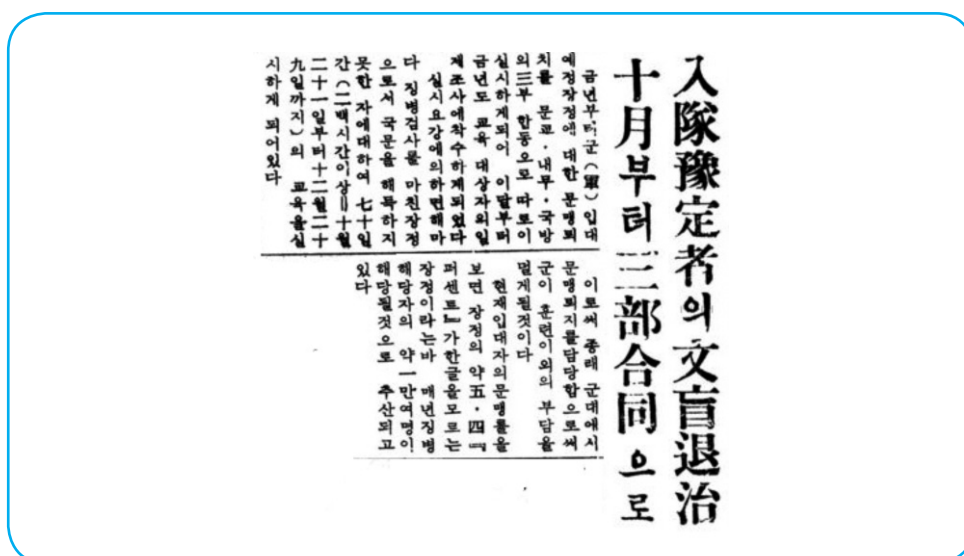
In the period of national restoration after the Korean War and armistice, the armed forces played an important role in improving the literacy rate. In Korea, every man had to serve in the army and literacy education was quite effective and easily applicable to the soldiers.

Right after the Korean War, the number of illiterate soldiers reached 230,000. To improve the situation, the government issued a directive to provide Korean language education under the responsibility of commanders. After the government started implementing literacy education throughout the country, the army issued a more detailed guideline for literacy education through its directive no. 24 in 1955. According to the directive, the army had to divide each level of education into elementary education, higher civic education, high school education, and university education (Man-Gil Huh, 1994). <Table 3-9> shows the instructions for literacy education in the army (Hyo-Seon Park, 2007).

Table 3-9 | Literacy Education for Military Personnel

- 1) To eradicate illiteracy completely, literacy education must be provided to soldiers who can not read and write Korean.
- 2) All army recruits should become literate before they leave the boot camp.
- 3) Each training camp should open and operate a Korean language school for 8 hours per day and 44 hours per week for six weeks. Korean: 220 hours; Arithmetic: 44 hours.
- 4) Other army units except training camps should open Korean language schools if there is any illiterate person. Front line units should open a Korean language school in each division. Units under the II Corps should open one school per each military district. Other units should open one school within their base.

Figure 3-6 | An Article on Literacy Education for Military Recruits



Source: July 1, 1958. Kyunghyang Shinmun.

By the directive, any military personnel was able to receive literacy education. Hangul Basics or Civil Reading was used as the textbook for this course and around 10,000 people finished the course every year. This military literacy education was operated even in the 1960s. The total number of army personnel who received literacy education from the point of founding the army reached 600,000 (Taek-Gu Song, 1998, Hyo-Seon Park, 2007).¹¹

¹¹ Military literacy education continued until 1973 when the Army began to exclude people with low educational backgrounds from enlistment. As the level of education was heightened among the general recruits, literacy education disappeared naturally (Hyo-Seon Park, 2009).

Table 3-10 | Number of Army Personnel who took Literacy Education since the Founding of Armed Force

Year	No. of Persons	Year	No. of Persons
Founding-1952	148,553	1962	16,764
1953	208,023	1963	8,432
1954	76,012	1964	2,343
1955	34,976	1965	6,155
1956	23,511	1966	4,529
1957	15,477	1967	4,721
1958	10,444	1968	7,785
1959	6,447	1969	7,986
1960	14,224	1970	531
1961	12,677	Total	587,298

Source of Data: Ministry of Defense. Military and National Development. p 35. Taek-Gu Song (1998). p 161. Hyo-Seon Park (2007). p 134. Requested.

In line with other policies, the Republic of Korea (ROK) Army installed citizenship training schools within the military and provided the elementary level of education including General Course and Civil Course. General Course corresponded to the 1st-4th grades of elementary school; Civil Course corresponded to the 5th-6th grades of elementary school. In each course, participants were taught Korean, Social Studies, Science, Arithmetic, and Farming. From 1954 to 1959, around 140,000 soldiers had completed General Course and around 100,000 had completed Civil Course.

Table 3-11 | Number of Army Personnel who completed Military Citizenship Training School

Year	General Course	Civil Course
1954	42,366	21,467
1955	42,747	32,595
1956	24,422	23,491
1957	12,088	12,098
1958	8,361	3,510
1959	8,126	2,474
Total	138,689	95,638

Source: Office of Troop Information and Education, Republic of Korea Army Headquarters. 50-year History of Troop Information and Education. p344. Hyo-Seon Park (2007). p 138. Requested and partially revised.

The Ministry of Defense provided literacy education to illiterate people who were scheduled to join the army in cooperation with the Ministry of Culture and Education and the Ministry of Home Affairs. In 1958, with a collaborative effort, the “Guideline for literacy education for illiterate people who will join the army” was established. This guideline stipulated that the army should maintain the principle of compulsory education stated in the Education Act of 1949 and provide literacy education to illiterate people who were supposed to join the army so as to reinforce the military strength and modernize the army (Ministry of Culture and Education et al., 1958). According to the guideline, literacy education provided more than 200 hours of citizenship training school educations under the cooperation of the Ministry of Culture and Education and the Ministry of Home Affairs.

2. Literacy Education in the Economic Development Period

2.1 Building Basic Capability for Economic Development

Korea’s policy for literacy education has greatly changed through the tumultuous years of politics, society, and economy since 1960. The April 19 Revolution in 1960 overthrew the crooked First Republic of Korea, and the military junta took power through the May 16 Coup of 1961. In 1980, another military coup took control of the government and established the Fifth Republic of Korea, maintaining the authoritarian military government until the early 1990s. Economically, the country went through rapid industrialization, and built an export-oriented economy. From the 1960s to the early 1990s when political democratization started, Korea’s authoritarian government pushed for rapid industrialization.

Alongside, changes have occurred in literacy education. In the 1950s, the government strongly implemented literacy education for the nation’s restoration. The period of economic development from the 1960s played a complementary role in fulfilling the unfinished tasks of the past decade. In a sense, the government already accomplished its goal of literacy education in the 1950s through two major plans: the Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education and the Five-year Plan for Eradicating Illiteracy. According to the government’s announcement, both plans were a tremendous success showing the rate of enrollment as 96% and the illiteracy rate as 4.1%.

In spite of the remarkable accomplishments, the necessity of literacy education at the national level still remained. In particular, some data results raised questions about the success of literacy education in terms of the illiteracy rate. For example, the Central Education Research Institute that surveyed the illiteracy rate by using the standard direct survey showed a result of 22.1%, five times greater than that of the government. Another survey conducted by the Economic Planning Board showed that 27.9% of the total population was still illiterate. The National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters, the leader of the literacy education movement in the early 1960s, also reported that at least 10% of the nation’s population was still illiterate (Jong-Geon Hwang et al., 1966).

Table 3-12 | Results of Literacy Survey

Survey Agency	Year	Survey Method	Illiteracy Rate	Source
Economic Planning Board	1955	"	21.0	Brief National Census in 1955, Jong-Seo Kim, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Home Affairs, Korean Society for the Study of Education, Study report. September 20, 1963.
Central Education Research Institute	1959	Standard direct survey	22.1 ¹²	Jong-Seo Kim, Illiteracy Survey, Central Education Research Institute, 1959. p 17
Economic Planning Board	1960	Complete direct survey	27.9	National Census Report, Economic Planning Board No. 31 Jong-Seo Kim, Korea Society for the Study of Education, Study report. September 20, 1963.
National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters	1961	Reported by subordinate agency	8.1	Jong-Seo Kim, Korea Society for the Study of Education, Study report. 1963
	1962	"	9.5	Jong-Seo Kim, Korea Society for the Study of Education, Study report. September 20, 1963.

Source: Jong-Geon Hwang (1966). Social Education in Korea. Central Education Research Institute. p 99.

Such different results between the government and other agencies can be interpreted in two ways.

First, the absence of continuous education made literate people revert back to illiteracy. Realizing this problem, the government planned to continue to support literacy education.

Many elderly people reverted back to illiteracy after comprehending Korean language if they did not have any chance to use the language. This increased the illiteracy rate. Therefore, the government has provided both literacy education

¹² Details of the survey are as follows [See the Monthly Bulletin of Culture and Education, November 1960 edition].

- Over 12 years of age
Men: Semi-literate 4.2%; Illiterate 6.9%; Total 11.1%.
Women: Semi-literate 9.1%; Illiterate 24.3%; Total 33.4%.
Total: Semi-literate 6.6%; Illiterate 15.5%; Total 22.1%.
- 12-49 years of age
Men: Semi-literate 2.7%; Illiterate 3.5%; Total 6.2%.
Women: Semi-literate 8.4%; Illiterate 15.9%; Total 24.3%.
Total: Semi-literate 5.5%; Illiterate 9.6%; Total 15.1%.

and additional programs and is planning to implement the programs in the future (Ministry of Culture and Education, 1958a: 464-5).

Second, the survey method was not appropriate. The government was obsessed with regional accomplishment and failed to perform both scientific and empirical surveys. In 1966, Hyun-Ki Baek, the then director of the Central Education Research Institute, explained the situation as follows:¹³

The Ministry of Culture and Education announced the final result by gathering data from different counties and provinces. The Ministry itself had doubts about the credibility of the data and felt the need to conduct a more thorough examination and scientific investigation in the future (Hyun-Ki Baek, 1966).

Even after the government finished its campaign for eradicating illiteracy, a considerable number of illiterate people still remained and people continued to request for more government support for literacy education.

2.2 Literacy Education in Second Republic of Korea

The second Republic of Korea, which took power after the April 19 Revolution, recognized the necessity of supporting literacy education as written in the Monthly Bulletin of Culture and Education.

According to the Monthly Bulletin of Culture and Education published in 1960, the Ministry of Culture and Education was planning to support additional literacy education by installing rural libraries and through citizenship training schools. Its March edition stated three major plans. First, regarding “illiteracy eradication,” the Ministry sought to perform an exhaustive Korean language education program through adult classes in citizenship training schools in 1960. Second, regarding “support for citizenship training school,” the Ministry committed its financial assistance to 1,840 public civic schools in Korea so the citizenship training schools would be able to accommodate all those who did not receive education but are past school-age. Third, regarding “rural libraries,” the Ministry planned to publish and distribute five books, 10,000 copies each, to rural libraries and students.

In the August edition of the Bulletin, the Ministry pointed out the eradication of lingering illiteracy as one of the major tasks the new government should undertake. The Bulletin also mentioned the problematic illiteracy rate survey and assumed the number of illiterate people to be 1 million to 2 million. Thus, it proposed a more scientific survey to estimate illiteracy and supplementary education to maintain literacy abilities. The October edition of the Bulletin featured the result of the illiteracy rate surveyed by the Central Education

13 Seung-Han Kim, the Editor-in-chief of JoongAng Daily, strongly criticized the loophole of the illiteracy rate survey. “To promote its accomplishment, the previous government counted every single person, even those who took the literacy class only once as a literate person and announced that the illiteracy rate dropped from 78% in 1954 to 4.1% in 1958. Because of this fabrication of data, the nation became the laughing stock of the world” (Seung-Han Kim, 1970).

Research Institute in detail which was 22.1%. In the following month, the November edition presented the government's policy for culture and education and 33 action plans of which the 23rd action plan was about literacy education.

The Ministry of Culture and Education will survey the state of illiteracy again and extensively operate current adult classes of citizenship training schools (200 hours) in order to eradicate any existing illiteracy. The Ministry will also build networks with the Ministry of Defense and local agencies on social development to set up annual plans. For better use of rural libraries, the Ministry of Culture and Education will improve the quality of 1,373 libraries and aim to build at least one library in each county (Monthly Bulletin of Culture and Education, November 1960: 17).

That is, the Ministry continued to provide 200 hours of literacy education to adult classes of citizenship training schools and carry out follow-up measures by distributing books to rural libraries. In an article entitled "The Current Status and Future Plans for Rural Libraries" from the December edition of the Bulletin, the Division of Social Education presented its plan to build new libraries in 153 villages and support 121 current rural libraries by starting a reading campaign (Monthly Bulletin of Culture and Education, December 1960: 62).

In brief, the second Republic of Korea made efforts to evaluate the policy for illiteracy eradication carried out in the 1950s as well as to help people maintain their literacy skills. However, the government could not perform the plan extensively because the government was overthrown by the May 16 Coup in 1961 and a military government took power shortly thereafter.

2.3 National Reconstruction Movement and Literacy Education

After the May Coup, the military government took office and the Supreme Council for National Reconstruction became the highest decision-making body. Encouraging social leaders to take the lead of people's revolution on a national scale, the military government staged a national campaign called "National Reconstruction Movement."

The National Reconstruction Movement was launched by the Supreme Council Act promulgated on May 27, 1961, and took concrete form after the Law on National Reconstruction Movement which was enacted on June 11, 1961. Even though the Movement was formed by the government, the Supreme Council announced political neutrality of the Movement to make it a private-led movement (Eun Huh, 2003). In order to make achievements on the nationwide basis, the Movement was carried out under the organic collaboration between the central and local organizations. Composed of the director general, deputy heads, and departments of general affairs, planning, management, enlightenment, guidance, and training, the Movement spread widely throughout the country. Under the deputy heads were provincial offices, city and county councils, district councils, reconstruction offices, etc. where governors became the heads of provincial offices; mayors and county heads became the heads of city and county councils; village chiefs became the

heads of district councils (Jae-Young Huh, 2004). Even though the basic structure seemed private-oriented, its operation was led and managed by the government.

Based on the collaborative effort of the National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters and its branch offices: the Men's Reconstruction Council, the Women's Reconstruction Council,¹⁵ and the Student Reconstruction Council, three projects—public enlightenment, family planning, and illiteracy eradication—were carried out (Jae-Hak Yoon, 1961).¹⁶

Launched on June 12, 1961, nationwide campaigns started to completely eradicate illiteracy from the nation and every village became the basic unit of education (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1966; Jae-Young Huh, 2004). In particular, according to the guidelines for the Men's and Women's Reconstruction Council, literacy education was at the top of the agenda (National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters, 1961).

In its first phase, the movement carried out literacy education for almost five months from December 11, 1961 to April 30, 1962. The movement headquarters published a magazine called *Reconstruction Life: Rural Edition*, which its 10th edition contained the basic plan for literacy education entitled "Education plan for illiterate people." According to the plan, the ultimate goal was to improve the quality of people's lives. Accordingly, the movement was targeting every illiterate man and woman over 19 years of age: the Men's Council for men and the Women's Council for women (National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters, 1961: 15-16). However, it was advised to include youths under 19 years of age and to educate enlisted personnel first. Literacy education was provided upon availability including schools, community centers, civic service offices, and households (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1966; Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990; Chang-Yeol Choi, 2000). Subjects included Korean (30 hours), Arithmetics (10 hours), and Propaganda education (10 hours), 40 hours in total (National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters, 1961).

15 The Women's Council was formed when the rate of illiterate women was higher than that of male counterparts.

16 Men's and Women's Reconstruction Councils were formed in each Ri and Dong and their members were 18-45 years old. As of 1962, the membership of the Men's council was 1,390,302; the membership of the Women's council was 1,187,228 (Woo-Gong Chae, 2004).

Table 3-13 | Curriculum of Literacy Education of National Reconstruction Movement

Subject	Contents	Type	Hours	Method	Reference
Korean	1. Korean alphabet	Lecture	4	Throughout the period, education was provided step by step.	Hangul Study
	2. Korean alphabet	Lecture	4		
	3. Spelling	Lecture	12		
	4. Reading/Writing	Lecture	10		
Arithmetics	1. Arabic numeral	Lecture	2	"	Math textbook for elementary school
	2. Addition	Lecture	4		
	3. Subtraction	Lecture	4		
	1. Significance of May 16 Revolution	Lecture	3	"	Brochure issued by the Bureau of Public Information
	2. Policies of revolutionary government	Lecture	3		
	3. Revolution pledges	Lecture	2		
	4. Other necessary issues	Lecture	2		

Source: National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters (1961). Reconstruction Life: Rural Edition No. 10. National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters. p 16.

Figure 3-7 | University Students Performing Literacy Activities in 1962



The movement designated the year 1964 as the “year without illiteracy.” Eventually, a total of approximately one million illiterate people (600,000 in 1962; 300,000 in 1963) joined the education program executed by the Reconstruction Movement (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990).

2.4 Breakup of Reconstruction Movement and Decline of Policy for Literacy Education

The government carried out literacy education in various forms such as the illiteracy eradication education led by the Ministry of Culture and Education in the 1950s and the illiteracy eradication project led by the National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters in the early 1960s. Although the National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters aimed the project to become a private movement, the project was led by the government because the Headquarters was operated through the administrative network under the Supreme Council for National Reconstruction. When the third Republic of Korea was launched in 1964, these government-led literacy education projects came to a halt. The reconstruction movement turned into a private movement; the National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters changed to the National Reconstruction Movement Association. The Association put emphasis on the village fund project that did not require any governmental assistance (Eun Huh, 2003), resulting in rapid loss of the driving force of literacy education (Min-Nam Kim&Jeong-Bong Cho, 2000). As a result, the membership dropped from 4.3 million in the previous government to 1.26 million in 1969.

Meanwhile, the Ministry of Culture and Education still carried out a reading campaign through village libraries until the 1970s in order to improve people’s literacy abilities in rural and fishing villages. The village library project, which was first launched in 1961 and carried out until the mid 1970s, was quite successful and installed nearly 35,000 village libraries (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990).

However, the government focused more on economic development for the purpose of democratization and modernization and lost interest in literacy education as a basic education for people (Chang-Yeol Choi, 2000). According to the data from the Ministry of Culture and Education in 1968, the rate of illiteracy was still as high as 14.7%. Yet, literacy education fell to the state of oblivion (Seung-Han Kim, 1970). Although some adult classes were still operated in elementary schools (Jae-Geun Lee, 1975), even those adult classes changed their targets to youths who did not go to school (Taek-Gu Song, 1998). In fact, after the late 1970s, those classes were replaced by activities of Saemaul education or Saemaul mother’s school and stopped teaching Korean language (Chang-Yeol Choi, 2000). Adult education classes that did exist were operated in school facilities to teach local residents and parents who did not receive any basic education or did not comprehend Korean language. These classes provided participants with Korean language education, family rites, basic right to education, superstition, and anticommunism (Woon-Shil Choi, 1990). As of 1974, a total of 8,139 adult classes were operated in 6,246 schools out of 6,269 elementary schools

and 2,146,759 people took part in those classes. Nevertheless, adult classes could not bring practical outcomes because of insufficient financial support (Woon-Shil Choi, 1990).

As a result, there were only few policies for literacy education from the late 1960s to the early 1980s (Woon-Shil Choi, 1992; Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). Rather, literacy education was carried out by other institutions including night classes, literacy education institutions, religious organizations, adult education organizations, etc. during this period (Sung-Ho Chun, 2009).

2.5 Private-led Literacy Education

After the Reconstruction Movement Headquarters disbanded, the government did not actively carry out any activity for eradicating illiteracy and lost interest in it. Instead of providing the basic level of literacy education, the government reorganized middle school education with night schools, Saemaul schools, and citizenship training schools (Sung-Ho Chun, 2008:626).

As the government's enthusiasm waned, the private sector began to lead literacy education in Korea from the 1960s. For example, private institutions such as Sudo institute opened a Korean language course from the 1960s to 1989, teaching almost 50,000 people. Other institutes including Chunghoon, Hanlim, Koryeo, and Daeshin have been providing literacy education from the early 1970s until now (Sung-Ho Chun, 2008). In a smaller scale, Korean language education was carried out in adult classes affiliated with some elementary schools. But, these classes were not effective due to lack of finance. In fact, the decades from the late 1960s to early 1980s can be seen an absence of any social education of eradicating illiteracy and strengthening basic education (Woon-Shil Choi, 1992).

Private organizations also carried out the literacy education movement. For example, Korea Research Institute for Women's Life started a Korean language course for illiterate people from 1978. After 1987, as political democratization started to bloom in Korea, local organizations, especially organizations for the urban poor, led literacy education. In the 1990s, private literacy education institutions including Anyang Citizen Academy and Seoul Mother's School as well as community welfare centers provided literacy education. Most of these literacy education institutions provided basic literacy courses such as reading, writing, and arithmetic to illiterate people and people with low academic background for six months to one year. Once the basic course was over, students could learn basic English and pen writing skills, which were divided into beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels (Woon-Shil Choi, 1990).

Meanwhile, night schools continued to provide literacy education mainly in poor neighborhoods. Night schools such as Seomun yahak, Tapil yahak, Hanlim school, Kukminkwan, and Gyeonggi vocational school for boys actively carried out literacy education in the 1960s. In the 1970s, Saemaul Sangrok school, YMCA, Junior Chamber International Korea, BBS (Big Brothers and Sisters Movement), Korea Bible club,

vocational school for boys, and Peaceful Saemaul school were operated (Sung-ho Chun, 2009). Each school had its own identity and direction and provided education for understanding characters. In particular, night schools played an important role in teaching Korean characters and practical issues.

According to the statistics of 2004, more than 400 institutions were providing literacy education to 10,000 learners in Korea before the government resumed its support for literacy education. Among these institutions, private institutions accounted for 92.4% (Don-Min Choi et al., 2004). However, as the statistics were not based on a complete enumeration survey but on interviews with 1,000 institutions only, the actual number of institutions and learners may be greater than that of the result.

In the history of literacy education in Korea, another important characteristic in the 1990s is the systematization of private-led institutions. Private-led institutions built a nationwide network with other literacy education institutions while each institution had its own agenda and different target group. Thus, institutions became more fragmented and divided (Byung-Yoon Noh, 2009). Lifelong educators and literacy educators established the Korea Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education in 1992. Civil groups related with literacy education formed the Korean Literacy and Adult Basic Education Association in 1999. Besides, the National Association of Popular Education and the Korean Literacy Basic Education Association (KLBEA) were launched in 2000 and 2004, respectively.

Table 3-14 | Korean Consultative Groups on Literacy Education

	Korean Literacy and Adult Basic Education Association	Korea Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education	National Association of Popular Education
Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Establishing a support system for literacy and adult basic education ▶ Improving the quality of each learner's life ▶ Building a grassroots civil society ▶ Realizing equal education ▶ Sharing happiness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Improving the quality of life through literacy and basic education for adults and youths ▶ Contributing to the development of democracy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Mutual cooperation through autonomous consultation among night schools and educational institutions ▶ Developing lifelong education facilities in Korea
Project	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Establishing a support system for literacy and adult basic education 2. Nurturing literacy and adult education experts (in-house training and commissioned training) 3. Developing and operating a grassroots civil education program 4. Consulting member institutions 5. Publishing textbooks and newsletters 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Research on literacy and adult basic education 2. Promoting education through developing and distributing resources 3. Promoting literacy-related reading 4. Holding academic symposium on literacy education 5. International exchanges and cooperation on literacy and basic education 6. Recognizing contributors to literacy education 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Supporting member institutions 2. Providing training and workshops to night schools and other lifelong education facilities 3. Building local networks and communication system 4. Publishing textbooks and newsletters
Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Co-representatives of local councils ▶ Student leaders' training ▶ Korea-Japan literacy exchange meetings ▶ Writing contest on Hangul proclamation day ▶ Fundraising event ▶ Special projects for member institutions ▶ Policy proposal and promotion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Research and promotion of literacy and basic education for educationally-disadvantaged groups ▶ Collaboration with Korean National Commission for UNESCO in literacy and adult basic education ▶ Membership of the Korean Federation for Lifelong Education ▶ Membership of the Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Representative meeting: Four times in a year ▶ Metropolitan and city leaders workshop: Once per year ▶ Solidarity event: Once per year

Source: Korean Literacy and Adult Basic Education Association (2008). The Prospect and Task of Literacy Education from the Perspective of Lifelong Education.

3. Adult Literacy Education since the 1990s

3.1 Maturity of Civil Society and Policy for Adult Literacy Education

Through political stability, economic growth, and social diversification in the 1990s and 2000s, literacy education faced completely different situations such as the change of national awareness and cooperation between the public and the private. From the mid 1980s, a series of pro-democratic resistance movements started and the June civil uprising of 1987 contributed to realizing procedural democracy. The development of the local autonomy system and the popular election for chiefs of local governments in 1995 helped the nation emphasize the role of grassroots democracy and the local society. The Korean government implemented a number of policies on innovation and development simultaneously at the local level. For example, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology started a project of lifelong learning city. Its purpose was to support local autonomy organizations so that they would be able to create various learning resources, help local people grow through learning, and develop the local area. From 2001 to until now, 82 lifelong learning cities have been established in Korea. These lifelong learning cities have focused on guaranteeing the basic right to learn and providing more opportunities for lifelong learning. This project has brought about more interest in adult literacy education in the region.

So far, Korea has made efforts to develop the economy by strengthening corporate competitiveness, improving social equality and balanced development, and pursuing openness and internationalization. As a result, its national GDP has constantly increased. In 1996, Korea became a member of the OECD and came closer to join the ranks of advanced nations. Thanks to such rapid economic growth, Korea has changed from a recipient country to a donor country. Looking into the society, the suppression and regulation from the nation were replaced by the power and responsibility of the general public. Civil groups have tried to expand the civil movement, promote the concept of community, and broaden the social welfare and social security system.

At the same time, social changes created an income gap and deepened the gap between the rich and the poor. To achieve balanced development, the nation started to focus on the underprivileged people of the society and made various social welfare policies to support them. In this regard, the government made the system and institution of lifelong learning and paid attention to adult literacy education along with the lifelong learning policy.

As mentioned before, the Korean government lost its interest in illiterate adults in the 1970s and 1980s. Based on the government's report, the rate of enrollment in compulsory education facilities reached over 100% and for decades, almost every policy focused on economic development. In the fast-changing industrialization, many workers moved from rural areas to cities for better opportunities. Because many of these workers needed at least a middle school degree, non-profit organizations such as industrial night schools, YMCA, and homemakers' classes or profit organizations such as private institutes for qualification examination provided relevant studies and satisfied the workers' passion to study.

In this circumstance, experts studied lifelong learning literacy education, especially the activities of private institutions. For example the Korean Federation for Lifelong Education has played a critical role in education and research. This Federation was launched by activists and scholars in social education through a seminar for social education leaders held at Haein Temple on June 24-27, 1976 and actively responded to the needs of the times of social education and lifelong learning. The Federation contributed to establishing the Social Education Act in 1982 and revising the Lifelong Learning Act in 1998 and played a pivotal role in making the issue of lifelong learning known to the public. After the United Nations designated the year of 1990 as the International Year of Literacy Education, the Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education was established, which created a new forum for exchanges between the academy and NGOs.

After the civilian government took office, suppression and surveillance of private-led literacy education institutions disappeared and more private institutions started to gain further interest in literacy education. As a result, the number of private literacy education institutions increased rapidly in the 1990s. As of February 1992, 120 literacy education institutions that existed in Seoul, Daegu, and Busan rose up to 230 in 1999 (Mee-Shik Shin, 2007). According to a survey of literacy education institutions conducted by the National Information Society Agency in 2004, there were 11,069 students and 292 institutions including social welfare centers (45.9%), night schools (22.0%), other institutions (9.4%), civil groups (8.4%), public institutions (7.6%), and religious groups (6.6%) in Korea.

Table 3-15 | Status of Literacy Educational Institutions in 1999

(Unit: Number)

Type	Social welfare center	Voluntary group	Religious group	Women's group	Community school	Private institute	Citizenship training school	Cultural Institute	Cultural Center	Total
No. of institution	175	19	9	9	6	6	4	2	2	230

Source: Korean Educational Development Institute, Ministry of Education&Human Resources Development (1999). White Paper on Lifelong Education.

In the early 1990s, literacy education programs included basic subjects such as Korean, Chinese characters, English, arithmetic, and preparation for qualification examination as well as technical subjects such as parenting, law, living, and nutrition. The following table shows the example of literacy education programs.

Table 3-16 | Literacy Education Programs in Literacy Institutions in 1992

Name of program	Contents of literacy education
Ga Na Da Course	Basic Hangul, preparation for middle school qualification examination, basic Chinese characters, basic English
Hangul School	
Korean class	First-year course in elementary school
Class Zinnia	First semester of second-year in elementary school
Class Acacia	Second semester of second-year in elementary school
Class Rose	First semester of third-year in elementary school
Class Forget-me-not	Second semester of third-year in elementary school
Class Azalea	
Math	Second-year course in elementary school Third-year course in elementary school
Danbi class	
Basic level	Korean course of lower grades in elementary school
(Class Sunflower)	
Intermediate level	Math course of lower grades in elementary school
(Class Rose)	
Advanced level	Civil education (parenting, family law and counsel, home appliances maintenance, consumer rights, food, and nutrition)
(Class Rose of Sharon)	
Korean class	Basic, intermediate, advanced, night, and qualification examination courses
English class	Basic English
Chinese class	Basic Chinese characters
Basic class	Basic Korean reading
Elementary class	Basic Korean writing
Intermediate class	Korean writing and writing essays
Mothers' Sangroksu	
Korean class	Writing, reading, newspaper reading, everyday living (How to take notes, how to use the bank, and how to write letters)
Math class	The four rules of arithmetic, length, measure, and volume
Korean class	Reading (basic, intermediate, and advanced), writing, arithmetic
Citizenship class	Citizenship course and preparation for middle school qualification examination
English, Japanese, Chinese class	Basic English, Japanese, and Chinese characters
Class Bamboo	Korean reading
Class Orchid	Spelling and arithmetic
Class Plum	Writing, arithmetic, and English
Citizenship training school course	All courses of elementary school education Korean, Math, Ethics, Social Studies, Christianity, and Chinese characters
Higher citizenship training school course	Middle school course Korean, Math, English, History, Chinese characters, Music, and Ethics

Source: Woon-Shil Choi, et al. (1992) A Study on Past, Present, and Future of Social Education in Korea. Korean Educational Development Institute.

In the mid-1990s, night schools adjusted their curricula to include the subjects of school qualification exam and taught subjects of middle and high school courses. In particular, night schools designated “strategic subjects” such as history, social studies, politics, and liberal arts and gave students opportunities to discuss social issues (Sung-Ho Chun, 2009).

The designation of “International Year of Literacy Education” rekindled the interest in adult literacy education in Korea. Consequently, researchers and scholars in education research institutes released a considerable number of reports in the 1990s. For example, the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) published the Study on the current status of literacy and literacy education in Korea in 1990. According to the study, 9.1% were illiterate people among 2,116 adults over 18 years of age, causing a sensation in the society. In 2002, the KEDI published another report entitled “A study on current status of illiteracy among Korean adults.” Among 3,000 adults over 20 years of age the survey showed that 8.4% of adults remained in Level 1 of basic literacy equal to that of the sixth grade level at elementary school.

These research results showed that many people still had difficulties in living in the society due to the lack of literacy abilities. Moreover, according to the national census of 2005, which was conducted every five years, 590,000 adults over 20 years of age did not finish middle school education. Once again, this data raised the necessity of national support for illiterate people.

Without a doubt, exchanges and communications on adult literacy education among scholars and activists have become a driving force for accelerating the policy for adult literacy education at the national level.

Table 3-17 | Preliminary Survey of Illiteracy Situation

Year	Title	Researchers	Contents
'90	Current Status of Literacy and Literacy Education in Korea	Woon-Shil Choi, Eun-Soon Baek	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sample: 2,116 adults over 18 years of age · Content: Character literacy and basic literacy · Result <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Illiterate persons: 5.9% - Basic illiterate persons: 9.1%
'01	International Adult Literacy Survey	Hee-Su Lee, You-Kyung Han, Hyun-Jeong Park, Sye-Jeong Lee, Jeong-Hee Lee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sample: 1,200 adults over 16 years of age · Content: IALS was used after translation (Numeracy and document and quantitative literacy). · Result <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Overall literacy skills, especially document literacy were behind compared to Northern Europe.
'02	Current status of illiteracy among Korean adults	Hee-Su Lee, Ji-Hye Lee, Do-Hee Ahn, Jong-Im Byun, Sang-Ok Park, Jae-Hyun Kwon, Hyun-Seok Lee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sample: 3,000 adults over 20 years of age · Content: Literacy at the 6th grade of elementary school · Result <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Failure to clear Basic literacy level 1: 8.4% - Failure to clear Basic literacy level 2: 16.8%

Year	Title	Researchers	Contents
'04	Survey of Literacy Education Institution in Korea	Don-Min Choi, Byung-Chan Yang, Ji-Hye Lee, Hong-Gwon Yang, Joon Huh, Ji-Hyun Lee, Jung-Hyun Ko, Moo-Young Jeong	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Survey of Literacy Education Institutions - Found 430 literacy education institutions in Korea. - Analyzed management, program operation, and the current situation of learners.
'08	Survey of Basic Literacy Skills	National Institute of the Korean Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Sample: 7,033 adults over 19 years of age · Content: Prose and document literacy · Result <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Illiteracy: 1.7% - Semi-literacy: 5.3% (30% of the level of middle school students)

Source: Joon Huh et al. (2010). A Study on the Accomplishment of Projects Supporting for Mid to Long-term Plan of Adult Literacy Education. National Institute for Lifelong Education.

3.2 Policy for Adult Literacy Education and its Legal Grounds

3.2.1 Revision of Lifelong Education Act in 1998 and Resumption of National Support for Adult Literacy Education

In the 2000s, the policy for adult literacy education and the policy for lifelong education were carried out. After the government revised the Lifelong Education Act in 1998, the government could establish a system in pursuit of the lifelong education policy and implement various lifelong education projects. Such system and projects contributed to expanding the awareness of the necessity to educate people with limited lifelong learning opportunities.

In fact, the government's support program for adult literacy education started from 2006. However, before this, many projects focusing on underprivileged people already existed. In 1999, the Lifelong Learning Act was enacted and in 2001, the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) designated a supervising agency named National Center for Lifelong Education (NCLE). The NCLE played an important role in studying various policies for lifelong education and developing and operating policy projects. In particular, the NCLE surveyed the status of adult illiteracy, studied measures to recognize the academic background of illiterate people through literacy education, and developed textbooks for adult literacy. In the same context, the city or provincial Office of Education designated the "Local Information Center Lifelong Education" and "Lifelong Education Center." In the end, the society was more aware of the necessity to institutionalize adult literacy education.

Among many projects related to the lifelong education policy, the lifelong education support program for the underprivileged groups helped to resume the policy for adult literacy education from the year of 2001. The purpose of the support program was to provide lifelong education opportunities to adult learners and senior citizens with poor academic background, low income, disability, and from a single-parent or multi-cultural

households and to integrate the society by narrowing the gap of participation in lifelong learning from different academic backgrounds and income levels. To achieve the purpose, the government supported the program operation costs of lifelong education institutions. Before starting the support program for adult literacy education from 2006, the government supported literacy education programs for “illiterate” adults. The rate of literacy education programs that participated in the government’s project was different each year. In case of 2004, the government funded 36% of literacy education programs.

Table 3-18 | Lifelong Education for Different Groups of Underprivileged People (2004)

(Unit: Number)

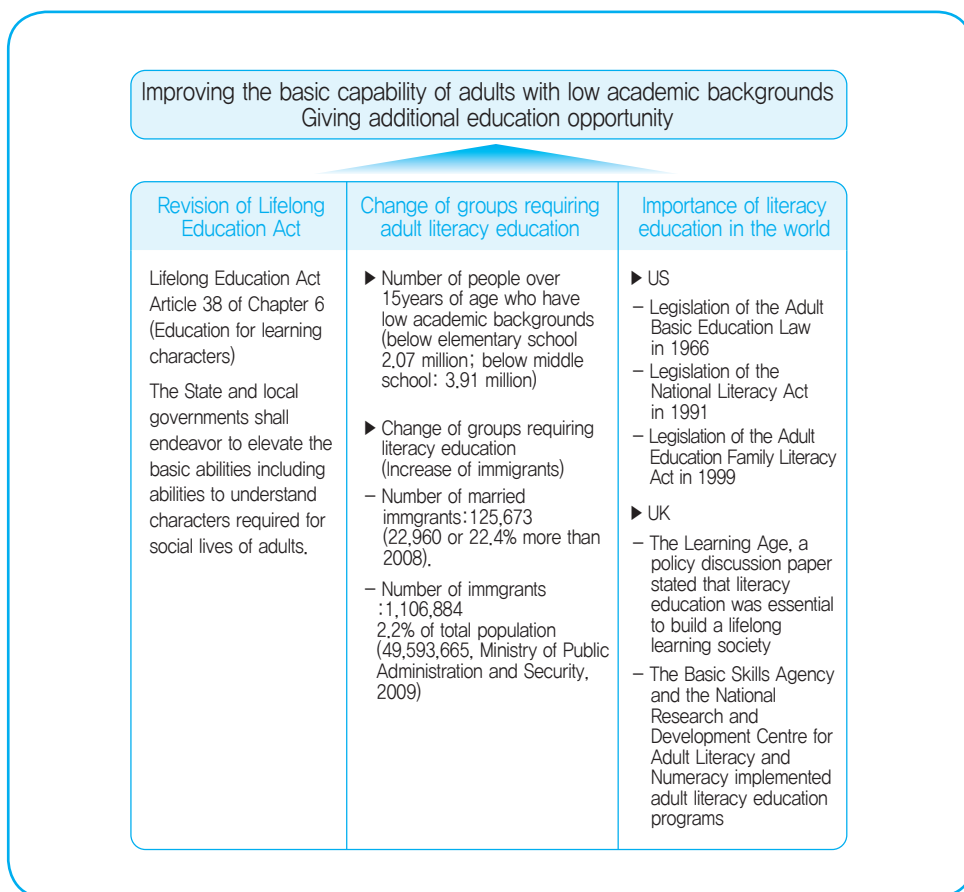
Subject Program	Senior Citizens	Illiterate	Women	Disabled	Low Income	Others	Total
No. of Programs	8	9	4	1	2	1	25

Source: Internal Data, National Center for Lifelong Education, Korean Educational Development Institute (2004).

The government started to implement the lifelong learning city project from 2001 in order to make networks of lifelong learning resources in each area and to facilitate lifelong learning among local residents. At the early stage in 2001, there were only three lifelong learning cities. Thereafter, the number increased to 82 and each local area had a system to support adult literacy education. Some lifelong learning cities including Ansan, Seosan, and Gunsan, received support from the chiefs of local governments and members of local councils and enacted the ordinance of adult literacy education. Based on the ordinance, local governments trained instructors in literacy education and secured the investment resources.

Since 2006, the government started its support program for adult literacy education. The program aimed to improve people’s basic capability and realize social integration by providing additional opportunity of education to adults with low academic backgrounds (National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2009). Compared with other governmental programs, this program was implemented with quite a large amount of budget (Kyung-Ah Lee, Jong-Im Byun, So-Yeon Park, 2007). The Lifelong Education Act which was revised in December, 2007 gave the program legal grounds and led local governments put more investment in literacy education. In case of operation cost, local governments were to spend 30% of the financial aid provided by the government. By doing so, local governments could receive more points (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology&National Institute of Lifelong Education, 2009). The program was operated by the participation of local governments and its major entities included the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, the National Institute for Lifelong Education, Local Governments, Local Offices of Education, and Literacy Education Institutions.

Figure 3-8 | Background of the Support Program for Adult Literacy Education



Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2009). Best Practices of Adult Literacy Education.

The government's support program included program operation cost related with teachers' salary and textbooks, teachers training to empower literacy education, and development of curriculum and textbooks for participants' recognition of academic background. Since 2009, the government selected institutions whose achievements were higher than others and supported more financial aid to make them local centers. Direct support included local center budget, institutional operation cost, and program operation cost. In addition to direct support, the government also promoted literacy education programs to attract more participants and developed textbooks for middle school courses (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology & National Institute of Lifelong Education, 2009).

Table 3-19 | Indirect Support for Adult Literacy Education

Development of textbooks	Literacy teachers training course	Literacy education staffs training course	Recognition of academic background for adult learners
Textbooks tailored to adult learners	Hold literacy teachers training courses by Article 70 of Enforcement decree of Lifelong Education Act.	Hold training courses to empower literacy education staffs.	Build a system of recognizing the academic background by Article 40 of Lifelong Education Act.

Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2009). Best Practices of Adult Literacy Education.

3.2.2 Revision of Lifelong Education Act in 2008 and Institutionalization of Support for Adult Literacy Education

In 2008, the government's policy for adult literacy education was divided into two major events: the revision of the Lifelong Education Act and the establishment of National Institution for Lifelong Education. The revised Lifelong Education Act stipulated the definition of adult literacy education, the grounds of financial assistance for adult literacy education, and the grounds and procedures of recognizing academic background. The National Center for Lifelong Education used to belong to the Korean Educational Development Institute from 2001, but was separated from the KEDI and was newly established as an independent agency with a new name, National Institution for Lifelong Education in 2008. As a result, the support program for literacy education became more systematic.

Before the Lifelong Education Act was revised, experts knew that adult literacy education was a basic right to learn for illiterate learners and made strenuous effort to operate it stably and established a special law. Through endless consultations, the Lifelong Education Act was completely revised and literacy education was included as an important part of lifelong education.

Article 2 of the revised Lifelong Education Act defined lifelong education as “all types of systematic educational activities including education supplementing scholastic abilities, adult education for learning the fundamentals and characters, education for enhancing vocational abilities, education for humanities and liberal arts, education for culture arts, education for citizen's participation, etc., other than regular school education.” Particularly, in the third clause of this Article, the concept of “literacy” was specified more accurately as “education for learning Korean characters.”

Clause 1 of Article 39 of the same Act stated that the State and local governments shall endeavor to improve the basic abilities including those to understand characters required for social lives. Clause 3 of the same Article stated the obligation of the State

and local governments to provide financial assistance for literacy education. Article 72 of the Enforcement Decree states how the State and local governments can support literacy education as follows.

Table 3-20 | Support of State and Local Governments for Literacy Education

Article 72 (Support to Education for Learning Characters)
<p>① The heads of the central administrative agencies concerned and the local governments may support the expenses applicable to the following subsections in accordance with Article 39 (3) of the Act.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Operating expenses for institutions implementing educational program for learning characters; 2. Expenses for books and teaching tools for educating character learning; and 3. Personal expenses and training expenses of teachers for educating character learning. <p>② Matters necessary for supporting the educational program for learning characters under section ① shall be determined by the heads of the relevant central administrative agencies concerned and the local governments.</p>

This revised Lifelong Education Act has a significant meaning as it recognized the academic background of each student. Thanks to this revised law, any illiterate adult can receive the academic degree through appropriate literacy educational programs without receiving formal school education. The Act stipulates that a person who has completed a curriculum of lifelong education pursuant to the provisions of this Act may be recognized for his/her academic background corresponding to the elementary school or middle school level. Article 70 of the Enforcement Decree states the standards for installing and designating the literacy educational program in terms of teachers, facilities and equipments, and curriculum.

Table 3-21 | Standards for Installation and Designation of Educational Program for Learning Characters

Article 70 (Standards for Installation and Designation of Educational Program for Learning Characters)
<p>① The Standards for installation and designation of educational programs for learning characters referred to in Article 39 of the Act shall be as follows:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teachers of elementary course shall be secured by graduates of universities or colleges or other persons who have the same academic background as graduates of universities or colleges. Teachers of middle school course shall be secured by persons having teacher qualifications under Article 21 (2) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, from persons who have completed teachers training course for educating character learning operated by the Institute or City/Do Institute: Provided, that teachers for elementary school courses may be secured by high school graduates, who have completed teachers training course for educating character learning operated by the Institute of City/Do Institute, and acknowledged by the Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters under Article 76 (1);

Article 70 (Standards for Installation and Designation of Educational Program for Learning Characters)

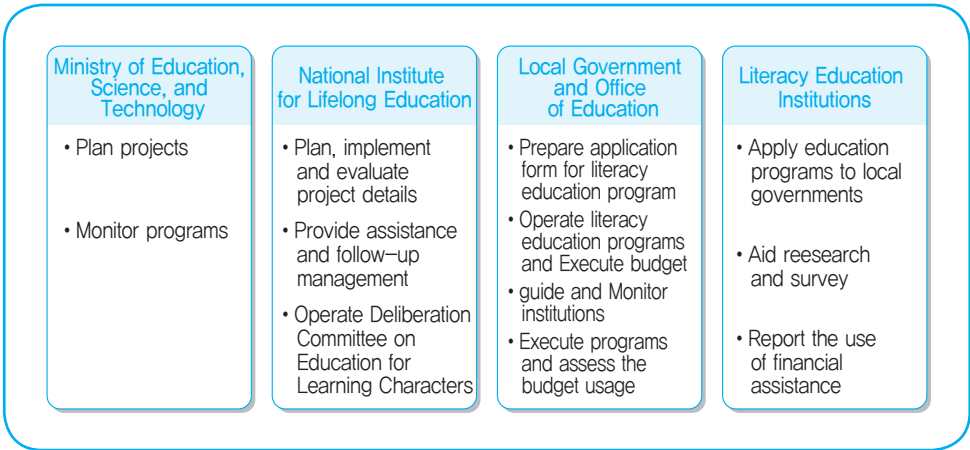
- 2. Facilities and equipments appropriate for educational activities shall be equipped; and
 - 3. An educational program for learning characters corresponding to the elementary school or middle school level shall be operated.
- ② Detailed standards for teachers, facilities and equipments, and curriculum referred to in section ① shall be prescribed by the Ordinance of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

3.3 Modification of System for Adult Literacy Education

3.3.1 Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and National Institute for Lifelong Education

There are three major bodies that implement policies for adult literacy education. First, the Lifelong Learning Policy Division under the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology makes policies and plans, and the National Institute for Lifelong Education implements those policies. Second, local governments support literacy education at the local level. Third, non-governmental organizations related to literacy education participate in planning, executing, and evaluating national policies for adult literacy education and contribute to improving the effectiveness of the policies.

Figure 3-9 | Major Bodies for Adult Literacy Education



Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education(2009). 2009 White Paper on Lifelong Education. National Institute for Lifelong Education. p 183.

After the government started to actively support adult literacy education from 2006, the National Institution for Lifelong Education has become the major body in planning, executing, and evaluating the adult literacy education programs.¹⁷ As an independent agency since 2008, a separate division fully responsible for executing adult literacy education programs, training teachers, and conducting research and develop related policies was set up.

3.3.2 Local Governments

One of the main bodies of adult literacy education is the “local governments” (City/Gun/Gu) whose missions are to spread the awareness of local literacy education and to improve the quality of literacy education. When the National Assembly of Korea was discussing the budget for the adult literacy education program, there was an issue of whether the program should be implemented by each literacy institution or each local area.

At that time, there was no accurate information on private institutions related to literacy education. Thus, it was difficult to decide the form and amount of assistance for the institutions. In order to secure the credibility and stability, the government persuaded private institutions and local governments to form a consortium.

Local governments contributed to expanding the size of adult literacy education by using their budgets on top of government subsidies. Adult literacy education gained more interest from local governments and expanded its local resources through networks of human, physical, and institutional resources as well as local-level training of literacy education teachers.

Since 2009, the government selected institutions that obtained outstanding outcomes and supported more financial aid in order to expand literacy education in the region. Each center had its own curriculum and methodology by considering the uniqueness of each institution’s local characteristic and circumstance. For example, a local center designated in 2010 was targeting women, disabled people, elderly people, multi-cultural families, migrant women, literacy teachers, and institution’s staffs. Its programs included Korean class of different levels, visiting Korean class, math class, English class, and calligraphy class. Programs for literacy teachers and institution staffs included workshop, self-confidence course, laughter therapy course, and seminars. And teaching methods included autobiography, writing contest, textbook development, volunteer activities, and group counseling.

¹⁷ The National Institute for Lifelong Education is supporting adult literacy education as well as planning, executing and evaluating government’s lifelong education policy programs.

Table 3-22 | Programs and Methods of Local Institutions in 2010

Name of institution	Name of program	Target	Content	Method
Madul Women's School	Literacy class in your neighborhood	Illiterate women	Discovery and training volunteer teachers, and opening and operation of literacy classes	Lecture by level
Purun Citizen Community	Poetry and painting exhibition	Illiterate women, migrant women, and married migrant women	Poetry writing, painting, and poetry reading	Writing poetry, poetry and painting, poetry reading, exhibition, and art book
Busan Education and Culture Center	Boosting up your self-confidence. "Journey to self"	Illiterate elderly	Self-confidence, self-leadership, brave women in history, life cycle, etc.	Lecture on self-confidence
	Laughter therapy & mentoring	Literacy teachers	Laughter therapy training	Principle of laughter, praise relationship, and teaching techniques
Sungji Culture Center	Equality, Peace, and Sharing Class for Learners	Illiterate people and their family	Education on human rights of illiterate people	Lecture on human right, case study, role play, human right play, and role play
Daegu Sangin Social Welfare Center	Dalseo Hangul School	Illiterate adults (Married migrants and hearing-impaired people)	Consortium with other Hangul schools, teachers training, writing contest, performance book, etc.	Writing contest and multimedia class
Daegu Beautiful School	Network and Workshop for literacy teachers in Daegu and Gyeongbuk	Literacy teachers in Daegu and Gyeongbuk	Teachers training, program development, textbooks training	Workshop

Name of institution	Name of program	Target	Content	Method
Daejeon Firefly Night School	Firefly Hangul school	Local adults	Korean class	Lecture and practice
Ulsan Simin School	Writing contest for literacy students in Ulsan and writing letters contest for migrant women	Illiterate people	Letters and essays writing contest	Writing letters or essays
	Teachers and instructors training course	Teachers in literacy institutions	Build up expertise	Special lecture and brainstorming
	Literacy teacher seminar	Literacy teachers	Seminar	Case presentation
Choonie Social Welfare Center	Facilitating literacy education in Bucheon by raising the awareness of adult basic literacy education	Staffs, teachers, students, and administrators	Making a leaflet of Bucheon Association for Literacy Education	Production and promotion of leaflets
Yongsin Lifelong Education Center	2010 workshop for literacy learners in Ansan	Literacy learners	Workshop	Case presentation and arts activities
	Hangul event in Ansan		Literacy awards	Writing contest
	Ansan Happy Academy		Three-level literacy education	Lecture and practice
Anyang Citizen Academy	Empowering and networking for local literacy teachers	Literacy teachers	Teachers training and teachers' manual development	Case presentation, special lecture, and workshop

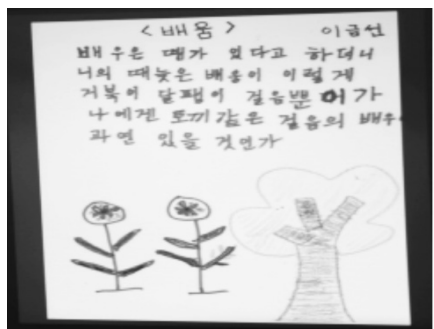
Name of institution	Name of program	Target	Content	Method
Gangneung Lifelong Learning City Team	Workshop for literacy teachers and class presentation	Literacy teachers and volunteer activists	Workshop	Writing autobiography and bibliotherapy
	Writing autobiography	Participants	Writing autobiography	Autobiography
	Silver Academy		Silver academy	Narrative therapy, safety education, and writing autobiography
	Come and Play with Hangul		Hangul events	Writing contest, quiz show (golden bell), and poetry reading
	Visiting Hangul class		Hangul class	Lecture
	Nurturing literacy teachers	Volunteer activists	Training course	Training
Taeback Alternative School	From basic Korean to middle school qualification examination	Local residents	Basic literacy course and qualification exam course	Lecture
Danyang Volunteer Center	Hangul for senior citizens	Illiterate elderly	Hangul class	Lecture
	Calligraphy for senior citizens		Calligraphy class	Calligraphy
	Writing a family motto		Writing a family motto	Writing a family motto
	Activities for senior citizens		Activity	Cultural activity, tour, and writing a report
	Group counselling		Group counseling	Play therapy and group counseling
	Volunteer team for senior citizens		Volunteer team	Volunteer activity

Name of institution	Name of program	Target	Content	Method
Danyang-gun Lifelong Learning Center Sobaek School	Adult literacy school	Illiterate people	Literacy class	Korean, math, English, special activities, and field activities
Seosan City Hall	Visiting school	Illiterate people	Literacy class, visiting class, and lifelong learning class	Lecture and writing essays
Seocheon-gun Volunteer Center Evergreen School	2010 Adult literacy education support program	Illiterate people	Writing contest	Writing letters, poetry, and pretty fonts
Jeonju Ladies' Lifelong School	Sports day	Local residents	Sports	Sports
	Teachers and staffs training	Teachers and staffs	Staff training	Special lecture and discussion
	Poetry and painting exhibition	Local residents	Exhibition	Exhibition
Ullim Night School	Literacy teachers in Jeonbuk training	Literacy teachers	Teachers training	Special lecture
	Jeongeup writing contest	Local residents	Writing contest	Writing contest
	Activities	Illiterate people	Activities	Activities
Gokseong-gun Office	Literacy event	Local residents	Learners' performance presentation	Presentation
	Adult literacy education case	-	Case presentation	Sharing and presenting resources
	Advanced course for literacy education graduates	Adult literacy education graduates	Advanced course	Korean, English, and Math

Name of institution	Name of program	Target	Content	Method
Mokpo City Hall	Opening ceremony of Hangul class in Mokpo	Students and staffs	Opening ceremony	Special lecture
	Literacy teachers meeting	Teachers	Teachers meeting	Discussion
	Literacy education consulting	-	Literacy education consulting	Visit and meeting
	Literacy assessment test	-	Literacy test	Test
	Writing contest	Students	Writing contest	Writing essays and letters
Suncheon Folk School	Workshop on facilitating adult literacy education	Literacy teachers	Workshop	Discussion and sharing of information
Gyeongsan Alternative Education Center	"Literacy Wave," a network of adult literacy education in Gyeongsan	Local literacy education institutions	Workshop and writing contest	Special lecture and writing contest
Marista School	Into the world beyond characters	Local residents	Literacy courses by levels	Lecture and activities
Masan Hanul School	Publishing a modern history textbook for illiterate people, "Our world"	Illiterate people	Developing and publishing a textbook and teaching	Newspaper in education, movies, and reports
Seogwipo Osuk School	Building a network of local literacy education institutions and fostering literacy teachers	Literacy education institutions	Survey of each institution's program and networks	-
Dongryeo Lifelong School	Workshop on literacy education	Literacy teachers and staffs	Network-building workshop	Discussion and special lecture

Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2009). Best Practices of Adult Literacy Education.

Figure 3-10 | Activities of Local Institutions in 2010







Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2009). Best Practices of Adult Literacy Education.

3.3.3 Networking with Literacy Education NGOs

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are another driving force behind adult literacy education. The Korean Federation for Lifelong Education has become a center for exchanging ideas among experts in lifelong education and activists in literacy education, and sharing interest in adult literacy education. On the occasion of International Year of Literacy Education in 1990, experts in lifelong education suggested the idea of establishing another agency named the “Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education.” As a result, leaders of institutions separately operated in the 1970s and 1980s came together for the purpose of literacy education.

Various forms of activists, associations, and organizations in literacy education came to discuss the government’s policy for adult literacy education. In 2003, the National Information Society Agency under the Ministry of Information and Communication started supervising the “Information Education Program for Illiterate People”¹⁸ where various NGOs could share different cases and exchange diverse opinions. For better communication with and response to the government, organizations such as the Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education, the Korean Literacy and Adult Basic Education Association, and the National Association of Popular Education appointed representatives, and participated in the government’s adult literacy education projects such as the evaluation of government subsidy to literacy educational institutions and the development of textbooks and training programs.

Under Article 76 of the Enforcement Decree of Lifelong Education Act, the Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters was established to deliberate on the recognition of qualification of teachers for literacy education and to provide advice on the

¹⁸ The government started this project to provide computers for information education and teach illiterate people Hangul.

policy for literacy education. As a body of public-private cooperation, the members of the Deliberation Committee were renowned scholars in lifelong education, Korean language education, and literacy education; representatives of literacy education associations; and officials of the central government. In particular, representatives from NGOs have actively provided advice on the overall policy related to literacy education.

Meanwhile, the government has designated and supported various literacy education institutions through its support program. In case of NGOs, each organization has developed and operated its own literacy education programs. NGOs have kept their interest in literacy education and operated literacy programs based on their experience. In recent years, NGO's literacy programs have become more systematic thanks to the government's financial aid. Compared to the previous lecture-type classes, they have developed more contents and methods to meet the needs and wants of learners. As time passed, more programs included married migrant women and various programs such as autobiography, storytelling, play, poetry and painting, and activities.

3.3.4 Assistance for Adult Literacy Education Programs and Institutions

From 2006, the government has supported the adult literacy education project by forming a consortium of literacy education institution in each local government, and subsidizing operation costs for literacy programs and institutions. From 2009, the government designated local hub institutions so as to spread the awareness of local literacy education. This time, instead of operating programs, the government encouraged various educational institutions to join and show their expertise in literacy education.

Each year, the participation ratio of institutions differs and different types of educational institutions participate in adult literacy education. For instance, night schools focusing solely on literacy education, literacy education-oriented institutions, community centers, institutions directly managed by local governments, schools, and other lifelong education centers are only a few.

Table 3-23 | Selected Types of Literacy Education Institutions (2010)

(Unit: Number, %)

Classification	National&Public					Private						Total
	① Local Government	② Community Center	③ Related institutions such as Office of Education	④ Nation/ Public Schools	⑤ Others (National/ Public)	⑥ Public Groups (Welfare Centers)	⑦ Institutions for literacy education	⑧ Night schools	⑨ (Private) Schools and School-type lifelong education facility	⑩ Religious Groups	⑪ Others (Private/ Individual)	
Local Hub Promotion Cost	5	2	0	0	1	1	7	3	8	0	0	27
Institution Operation Cost	0	0	0	0	0	16	29	44	7	0	1	97
Program Operation Cost	43	94	19	6	2	30	27	40	13	17	1	292
No. of Institution Ratio	48	96	19	6	3	37	42	56	23	17	1	348
	13.8	27.6	5.5	1.7	0.9	10.6	12.1	16.1	6.6	4.9	0.6	100

Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2008). A Report for Supporting the Operation of Adult Literacy Education. National Institute for Lifelong Education.

As time went by, the size of the government budget increased and more local governments, literacy education institutions, and learners joined the project. However, the governmental assistance has decreased since 2011 and finding a new direction has become the imminent task. Now, the focus is not on assisting as many literacy educational programs as possible but on providing quality programs to learners.

Table 3-24 | Current Status of Local Governments, Educational Institutions, and Learners Participating in Adult Literacy Education Programs

Year	No. of Learners	No. of Local Governments	No. of Literacy Education Institutions
2006	14,668	61	178
2007	21,294	108	356
2008	25,579	118	439
2009	22,664	130	353
2010	23,778	134	348

Source: Internal Data, National Institute for Lifelong Education (2010).

3.3.5 Building a System for Recognition of Academic Background

From the early stage of the adult literacy education support program, the government's intention was to realize the recognition of academic background through literacy educational programs.¹⁹ According to the Lifelong Education Act, the Superintendent of the Office of Education implements literacy educational programs (Article 68, Enforcement Decree of Lifelong Education Act) because Korea's administrative system is divided into education administration and general administration. Article 70 of the Enforcement decree further states the basic criteria for installation and designation of literacy educational programs in three areas: teachers, facilities and equipments, and curriculum.

First, teachers of elementary course shall be university or college graduates with any major and who should have completed teachers training courses provided by the National Institute for Lifelong Education or Institute of each city or province. In case a high school graduate wants to teach in the literacy educational programs operated or designated by the Superintendent, he/she shall complete teachers training courses for educating literacy operated by the National Institute for Lifelong Education or Institute of each city or province and be qualified by the Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters. Teachers of middle school course shall be those who have teacher qualifications under Article 21 (2) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. They shall complete teachers training courses provided by the National Institute for Lifelong Education or Institute of each city or province and afterwards be classified into regular teachers (grade 1 and grade 2), assistant teachers, expert counseling teachers (grade 1 and grade 2), literature teachers (grade 1 and grade 2), practicum teachers, hygiene teachers (grade 1 and grade 2), and nutrition teachers (grade 1 and grade 2). A total of 530 persons have completed the teachers training courses of the National Institute for Lifelong Education from 2008 to 2010.

Table 3-25 | Persons Completed Teachers Training Course for Literacy Education

Year	2008	2009	2010	Total
No. of Teachers (No. of Courses)	60 (2 courses)	267 (9 courses)	203 (5 courses)	530

Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education(2008). A Report for Supporting the Operation of Adult Literacy Education. National Institute for Lifelong Education.

Second, Article 70 (2) of the Enforcement Decree states that facilities and equipments “appropriate” for educational activities shall be properly equipped. Details are prescribed by the Ordinance of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. Each institution

¹⁹ The National Institute for Lifelong Education is supporting adult literacy education as well as planning, executing and evaluating government's lifelong education policy programs.

shall have more than one classroom, teacher's room and when framed, the poor conditions of literacy educational facilities shall be reflected in this regulation. The minimum size of classroom should be 30 square meters and 0.5 square meters more per one additional learner.

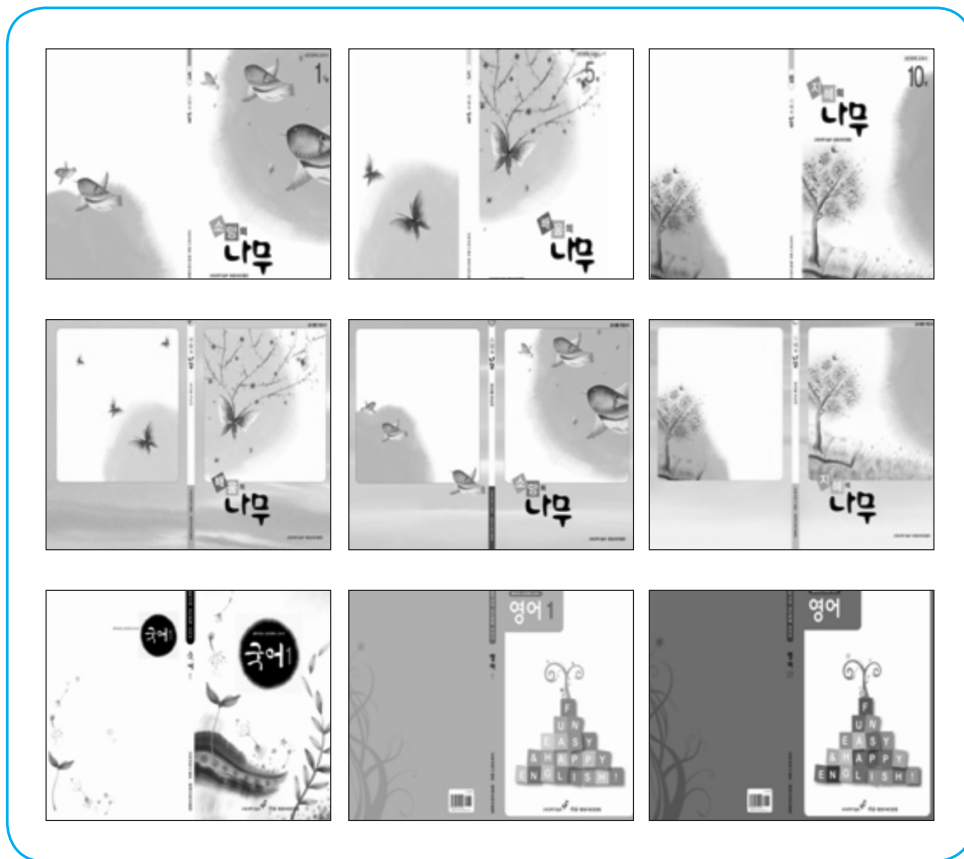
Third, Article 22 (4) of the Ordinance of Lifelong Education Act states that the curriculum shall be determined by the Minister of Education, Science and Technology after considering the learning abilities and experiences of adult learners. Here, the Minister shall develop and distribute textbooks and teaching materials. The recognition of academic background is based on the completion of literacy educational course. On June 18, 2009, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology issued a notification on literacy educational courses and specified that the total hours of elementary adult literacy course should be at least 640 hours at three levels: 160 hours, 240 hours and 240 hours each. In 2006, the government developed adult literacy textbooks for elementary school course and divided textbooks into three levels in 2007. The titles were Tree of Hope, Tree of Learning, and Tree of Wisdom (12 books and workbooks in 3 levels)²⁰ all developed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Korean Educational Development Institute. In 2009, the government developed the three-level Korean textbook for middle school course (Three levels, three books, and one manual) and in 2010, English textbooks were finished (National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2011a). Along with developing textbooks, the government also developed teachers' manuals for better use of textbooks. Those textbooks were composed of practical issues for adult learners and considered the size of textbook and fonts for users' convenience.

Table 3-26 | Literacy Textbooks for Elementary Course

Level	Title	Class hours	Total hours	School level	Contents
1 st Level	Tree of Hope (Vol.1-4)	4 hours, 2 times in a week	40 weeks, 160 hours	First and second grades in elementary school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Korean language: 90%, Math: 10% · Focusing on learning characters and basic words.
2 nd Level	Tree of Learning (Vol.5-8)	6 hours, 3 times in a week	40 weeks, 240 hours	Third and fourth grades in elementary school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Korean, Math, and Science · Korean language: 90%, Math: 10% · Also including English, Music with lyrics, and Arts with various activities.
3 rd Level	Tree of Wisdom (Vol.9-12)	6 hours, 3 times in a week	40 weeks, 240 hours	Fifth and sixth grades in elementary school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Korean, Math, Science, Social Studies, and English · Also including Ethics, PE, Music, Arts, etc.

²⁰ According to Article 76 of Enforcement decree of the Lifelong education act, the Superintendent of City/Do shall install or designate the literacy education program of the middle-school level. According to Article 22 of Enforcement regulations of Lifelong education act, the minister of science, education and technology shall develop and distribute textbooks and educational curriculum (National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2011b).

Figure 3-11 | Adult Literacy Textbooks



Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2009). Best Practices of Adult Literacy Education.

The Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters also examines various textbooks to designate qualified books as textbooks. At present, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the National Institute for Lifelong Education is developing a middle school course for adult learners who completed the elementary course <Table 3-22>. shows the details of the recognition of academic background.

Table 3-27 | Primary Agency and Procedure of Recognition of Academic Background

Section		Details
Designation of Educational Programs for Character Learning	Agency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Lifelong educational facilities attached to an elementary or middle school · Lifelong educational facilities or lifelong educational institutions by the Lifelong Education Act · Community centers or community welfare centers established by the State or local government · Other lifelong educational institutions designated by the Superintendent
	Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Capacity: Less than 30 members · Qualifications of teacher <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Elementary Course: Graduates of universities or colleges → Acquire qualifications after teachers training course Graduates of high school → Acquire qualifications after teachers training courses and review of Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters. · Facility/Equipment: Appropriate for educational activities · Curriculum: Adult literacy educational courses equivalent to those at the elementary or middle school level designated by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology · The completion of courses through the learning account system shall be recognized within the extent of two thirds (2/3) of the standards for recognition of academic background.
Recognition of Academic Background	Subject	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Elementary school course: Persons over 18 years of age without an elementary school degree · Middle school course: Persons over 18 years of age with an elementary school degree
	Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · A person shall join literacy educational programs installed/operated by the Superintendent of the city or the province and complete the curriculum determined by the Minister of Education, Science and Technology.
	Type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Elementary school level · Middle school level
Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning will be established within the National Institute for Lifelong Education. Its tasks include the recognition of curriculum, recognition of academic background, review of teacher's qualification, and others.

Source: National Institute for Lifelong Education (2008). Operation Manual for Education for Learning Characters. National Institute for Lifelong Education.

In 2012, a textbook for middle school course is scheduled to be published. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the National Institute for Lifelong Education hold consultation meetings with the staffs of the recognition of academic background program from 16 Offices of Education in cities and provinces three or four times a year so that the program can be operated effectively and without any problem.

3.3.6 Promotion of Awareness of Adult Literacy Education and Performance Management

In the 2000s, the support program for adult literacy education focused on two major areas. First, to provide financial assistance to programs and literacy education institutions in Korea and second, to establish a system for recognizing the academic background through literacy education. In order to raise the awareness of adult literacy education and to facilitate people's participation, the "National writing contest on literacy education" was held in 2010. The contest was hosted by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; organized by the National Institute for Lifelong Education and the Education Broadcasting System; supported by the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, the Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education, the Korean Literacy and Adult Basic Education Association, the National Association of Popular Education, and the National Association of Popular Education: YAHAK, and sponsored by AEKYUNG Ind. and Mirae N Co., Ltd.

The writing contest was composed of three different sections: writing on literacy education, operation of the literacy education program, and support for local institutions of the literacy education program. In the "writing on literacy education" section, literacy education learners over 18 years of age submitted poems and essays on the theme of "learning and life" or letters, and 51 people were awarded. In the "operation of literacy education program" section, teachers and instructors of literacy education submitted self-made videos on best practices of the literacy education program, and 17 people were awarded. In the "support for local institutions of literacy education program" section, a total of 8 local governments were awarded in terms of best cases and performances on the literacy education program. The best works and institutions received the Minister of Education, Science and Technology Award and other awards were given by the National Institute for Lifelong Education and the Education Broadcasting System. In this writing contest, a total of 4,936 works were submitted and 4,900 people, 26 teams, and 10 local governments participated in each section. The awards ceremony was held on December 15, 2010. <Table 3-28> shows the different age groups who participated in the writing contest; people in their 60s accounted for 35.2% of all participants, followed by those in their 70s (26.8%) and 50s (21.7%) (National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2011a).

Table 3-28 | Participants by Age in National Writing Contest on Literacy Education

Age	20s	30s	40s	50s	60s	70s	80s	90s	Others	Total
No. of Writing	86	66	204	1,065	1,726	1,312	152	8	281	4,900
Ratio	1.8%	1.3%	4.2%	21.7%	35.2%	26.8%	3.1%	0.2%	5.7%	100.0%

Figure 3-12 | National Writing Contest on Literacy Education



In the mean time, the Korean society put more emphasis on performance-based policies in the 2000s. This led to the discussion on how to make the performance of the adult literacy education program visible from the year 2006 when the support program first started. Thus, the government evaluated the support program every year and measured the satisfaction points, which became the performance target. Research reports also helped to establish more comprehensive performance indices. In short, various efforts were made to improve the direction and system of the adult literacy education support program.

It is also noteworthy that the government has been informing the result of intermediary inspection, necessary advices, and performances to participating institutions; sharing best practices; and striving to improve the program in the future.

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Development Process and Outcomes of
Adult Literacy Education in Korea

Chapter 4

Achievements and Implications of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

1. Achievements of Adult Literacy Education
2. Implications

Achievements and Implications of Policy for Adult Literacy Education

1. Achievements of Adult Literacy Education

Through the analysis, the study explained the achievements of adult literacy education: the decrease in the adult illiteracy rate, the realization of general education, the increase in the enrollment rate, the increase of participation in various lifelong learning opportunities, the cooperative system between the government and private organizations, and the system of recognizing academic background.

1.1. Decrease in Adult Illiteracy Rate

The Korean alphabet Hangul was first created in the mid-15th century but was not widely used until the end of the 19th century because the Korean society thought more highly of Chinese characters. However, from the late 19th century, people started to think that learning Hangul would be the way to strengthen each individual and eventually build up national power. During the Japanese occupation, rediscovering and distributing Korean language were regarded as the very means to achieve national independence (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1990). In this context, literacy education was at the core of civil and social education. The fact that Korea had its own language was unique and this fact served as the starting point of literacy education in Korea.

The status of literacy was first known after Chosun Daily reported the result of the “National Census” in 1930. Through the Japanese cultural policy, newspapers such as Chosun Daily and Donga Daily were first published in the 1920s. Yet, their primary aim was independence through enlightenment and modernization of people (Bok-Nam Yoon, 1990). When Chosun Daily conducted the National Census in 1930, the rate of illiterate people was 77.7% of the total population. In the Japanese colonization period, only 4.5 million people knew characters among 24 million .

With regard to the illiteracy rate after the national liberation of 1945, it is difficult to find specific data that illustrates the situation of that time (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo, 2001).²¹ The illiteracy rate right after Korea's liberation was estimated to be around 77-80%, which is quite similar to 77.7%, the result of the survey conducted by Chosun Daily in 1930. Such result shows that formal education was rather severely limited under the Japanese occupation. In the late 1930s, the Japanese government suppressed activities related to literacy education even more in order to win wars.

After the liberation of Korea, the U.S. military government launched a literacy education agency called the Literacy Education Committee under the Ministry of Culture and Education in Korea. This agency implemented a nationwide Korean distribution project by installing Korean language schools and training adult education leaders. Thanks to this effort, the rate of illiteracy dropped to 42% by the time when the South Korean government was established in 1948.

From 1954, right after the Korean War was over, the government strongly implemented the "Five-year Plan for Eradicating Illiteracy," which was quite successful in dropping the rate of illiteracy. According to the government's report, the rate dropped to 14% in 1954, 12% in 1955, 10% in 1956, 8.3% in 1957, and 4.1% in 1958 (Jong-Geon Hwang, 1990). However, each survey agency issued completely different results. Thus, Jong-Seo Kim analyzed the correlation between socio-economic situations and the rate of illiteracy and came to a conclusion that the rate of illiteracy was still in the range of 22-28% in 1964. Kim's result is considered to be very reliable because he came up with the result after conducting scientific analysis and comparison and even considering the loopholes of the government's survey.

Such a sharp decline from 80% to 20% showed the huge success of the government's five-year plan. After the launch of the third Republic, the National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters was established and literacy education projects were carried out by the early 1960s. As time passed, the illiteracy rate decreased and compulsory elementary education was operated in a stable way. As a result, the government lost interest in literacy education and did not seek for any further related policy. In 1968, the Ministry of Culture and Education announced that the illiteracy rate was 14.7% (Seung-Han Kim, 1970), but no more survey was conducted on the illiteracy rate for a while due to lack of interest. Thus, for decades, literacy education was practiced by private institutions including adult classes

21 It is very difficult to find any consistent trend in the rate of illiteracy after the nation's liberation because there were differences in the definition of illiteracy and survey methods (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo). Around the time of national liberation in 1945, the research department in the Bank of Chosun estimated that 7.98 million people of the total population over 13 years of age, which was 78% were illiterate (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo). The Monthly Bulletin published in 1959 stated that 7,980,902 people or 78% would be illiterate among 10,253,138 people over 12 years of age. The Chosun Census described the statistics of the total population over 13 years of age and people who did not attend school. Based on the data, the Census stated that the rate of illiteracy would be 77% (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo, 2001).

attached to elementary schools, Samaeul schools, Samaeul Mother's schools, private institutions, night schools, and literacy education institutions. The military government did not show any interest in literacy.

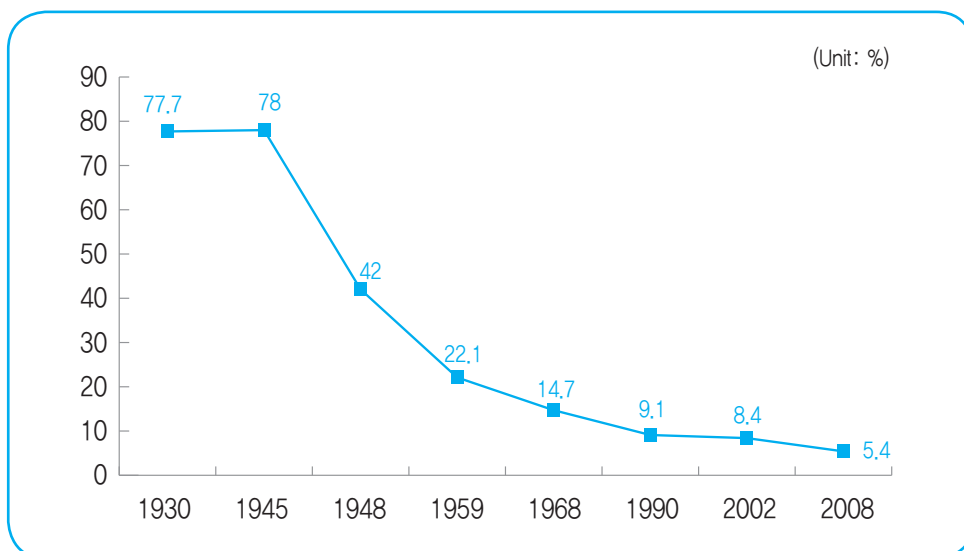
In 1990, UNESCO designated the International Year of Literacy Education. After that, the KEDI conducted a survey on adult illiteracy and reported that the rate of illiteracy was 9.1%. The result reignited the awareness of literacy in the society and more private institutions started providing literacy education. In February 1992, there were 120 literacy education institutions and organizations in Seoul, Busan, and Daegu, which the number increased to 230 in 1999 (Mee-Shik Shin, 2007). Establishment of institutions such as the Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education (1992) and the Korean Literacy and Adult Basic Education Association (1999) also facilitated private institution-oriented literacy educational activities.

After the Lifelong Education Act was enacted in 1998, the government started another attempt to provide literacy education as a part of lifelong education. The concept of literacy education here was expanded to the paradigm of lifelong education. Thanks to the literacy education support program, 100,000 people could receive literacy education during the five years. The amount of government's subsidies reached 9.17 billion Korean won (appx. 8 million US dollars) and local governments also showed interest in the program by raising the amount of investment. This result showed the harmony of national policy and people's longing to receive lifelong education.

According to the survey of the KEDI in 2002, the rate of adults who had literacy level 1 equivalent to that of the sixth grade of elementary school was 8.4% (Hee-Su Lee et al., 2002). According to the survey of the National Institute of the Korean Language in 2008, the rate of full illiteracy was 1.7% and the rate of semi-illiteracy was 5.3%. These data showed that a number of adults were still illiterate.

In Korea, literacy educational activities started from the late Chosun Dynasty and the survey of literacy was first performed in 1930. The basic trend of literacy education activity changed in line with the form of each government as private-government-private-government&private. In each period, the rate of illiteracy continuously decreased: 77.7% in 1930, 78% in 1945, 42% in 1948, 22.1% in 1959, 14.7% in 1968, 9.1% in 1990, 8.4% in 2002, and 5.4% in 2008. On the whole, Korea has achieved a remarkable success for the past 80 years.

Figure 4-1 | Changes of Illiteracy Rate among Korean Adults



Source: Bok-Nam Yoon (1990). A Study on Literacy Education in Korea from Socio-historical Point of View, Doctorate thesis, Korea University; Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo (2001). Illiteracy Eradication Movement in Korea during the U.S. Military Occupation: 1945-48; Research on Literacy Education in Korea. Seoul: Kyoyookbook; Jong-Seo Kim (1964). Review of Illiteracy Rate in Korea. Korean Journal of Educational Research 12; Seung-Han Kim (1970). Literacy Education into the State of Oblivion. Saegyoyuk 1970 June edition; Woon-Shil Choi&Eun-Soon Baek (1990). Current Status of Literacy and Literacy Education in Korea. Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute; Hee-Su Lee (2002). Current Status of Illiteracy among Korean Adults. Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute; National Institute of the Korean Language (2008). Survey of Basic Literacy Skills. Seoul: National Institute of the Korean Language.

Table 4-1 | Changes of Illiteracy Rate among Korean Adults

(Unit: %)

Year	1930	1945	1948	1959	1968	1990	2002	2008
Illiteracy Rate	77.7	78	42	22.1	14.7	9.1	8.4	5.4

Source: Bok-Nam Yoon (1990). A Study on Literacy Education in Korea from Socio-historical Point of View, Doctorate thesis, Korea University; Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo (2001). Illiteracy Eradication Movement in Korea during the U.S. Military Occupation: 1945-48; Research on Literacy Education in Korea. Seoul: Kyoyookbook; Jong-Seo Kim (1964). Review of Illiteracy Rate in Korea. Korean Journal of Educational Research 12; Seung-Han Kim (1970). Literacy Education into the State of Oblivion. Saegyoyuk 1970 June edition; Woon-Shil Choi&Eun-Soon Baek (1990). Current Status of Literacy and Literacy Education in Korea. Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute; Hee-Su Lee (2002). Current Status of Illiteracy among Korean Adults. Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute; National Institute of the Korean Language (2008). Survey of Basic Literacy Skills. Seoul: National Institute of the Korean Language.

1.2 Universal Education and Increase of Enrollment Rate

Thanks to policies and activities of literacy education at the private and national level, the rate of illiteracy continued to decrease. The government has made efforts to improve the level of literacy and realize the value of education beyond the mere level of understanding Korean characters. The achievement of the policy for literacy education can be identified by the reduction of the illiteracy rate and the progress of the school enrollment rate. In particular, the school enrollment rate can serve as an index that shows the level of educational opportunity and demonstrates the increase in people's participation in basic education in the process of realizing universal education.

The number of illiterate people was first mentioned in an article on education written in the Chosun Census. While covering educational institutions, an unidentified writer presented the population over 13 years of age and the statistics of people who did not attend school as of May 1944 (Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo, 2001). According to the article, the population over 13 years old was 15 million as of 1944 and almost 12 million did not attend school. The result showed that 79% of the population over 13 years of age did not attend school while only 21% of the same population did.

Table 4-2 | Total Population over 13 year-of-age and People who did not attend School (May, 1944)

(Unit: Number, %)

Total population over 13 years of age			People over 13 years old who did not attend school			Percentage
Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	79
7,591,482	7,829,267	15,420,749	5,011,769	7,228,981	12,240,750	

Source: Ki-Seok Kim&Seong-Sang Yoo (2001). Illiteracy Eradication Movement in Korea during the U.S. Military Occupation, 1945-48. Research on Literacy Education in Korea. Seoul: Kyoyookbook. p 47.

Compulsory education was legislated in the Constitution and the Education Act in 1948. However, compulsory elementary education was first carried out by the Six-year Plan for Compulsory Education in 1954-1959 (Naver Encyclopedia). According to a report in Donga Daily on December 30, 1959, the rate of enrollment in elementary school was 96%. Compared to 21% in 1944, this was surely a stark increase.

The rate of enrollment in elementary school dropped a little in 1970, but rose to 97.7% in 1980, 100.5% in 1990, 97.2% in 2000, 98.8% in 2005, and 98.6% in 2010. Thanks to compulsory education, the rate of enrollment in elementary schools could reach the status of full enrollment.

Compulsory middle school education was implemented by the Regulations on Compulsory Middle School Education enacted in 1985. At first, this was applied to the first-year students in middle schools in islands and remote areas only. But soon after, it was extended to students of all grade levels. Under the Regulations that was revised in 1992, compulsory education was extended to students of all grade levels in Eup and Myun areas from 1994 but not to cities due to the lack of finance. From 2002, compulsory middle school education was carried out in a three-year stage; it was implemented to the first grader in 2002, to the second grader in 2003 and to the third grader in 2004 (Naver Encyclopedia). The rate of enrollment in middle schools dramatically increased from 36.3% in 1970 to 73.3% in 1980. After that, it has increased to 91.6% in 1990, 95.0% in 2000, 94.6% in 2005, 97.6% in 2010, and showed the status of full enrollment.

In case of the rate of enrollment in high schools, the rate was only 20.3% in 1970, but this rose to 48.8% in 1980, 79.4% in 1990, 89.4% in 2000, 91.0% in 2005, and 92.4% in 2010. Even though high school education is not compulsory, the enrollment rate has increased along with the rates of elementary and middle schools. In fact, because of the high enrollment rate, high school is even regarded as compulsory education.

Through the periods of national restoration and economic development, the rate of school enrollment has increased in all three levels of schools while the rate of illiteracy has decreased. This means that universal education through literacy education contributed to improving the rate of enrollment in school education.

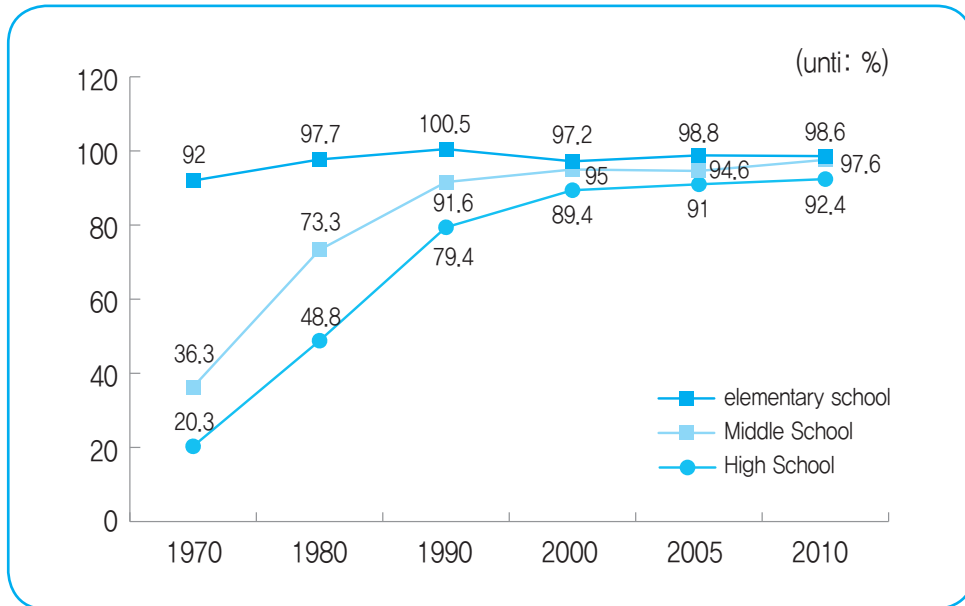
Table 4-3 | Progress of Enrollment Rate in 1970-2010

(Unit: %)

Section	1970	1980	1990	2000	2005	2010
Elementary School	92.0	97.7	100.5	97.2	98.8	98.6
Middle School	36.3	73.3	91.6	95.0	94.6	97.6
High School	20.3	48.8	79.4	89.4	91.0	92.4

Source: Korean Educational Development Institute (2010). 2010 Statistical Yearbook of Education.

Figure 4-2 | Progress of Enrollment Rate (1970-2010)



Source: Korean Educational Development Institute (2010). 2010 Statistical Yearbook of Education.

1.3 Increase of Participation in Lifelong Learning Activities

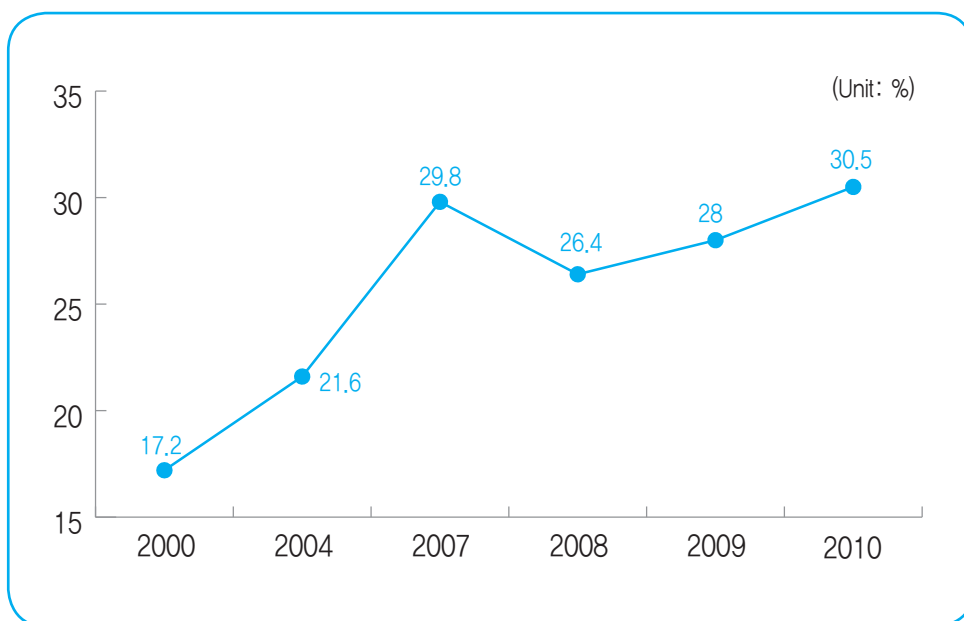
Through different periods including the Japanese occupation, the US Military occupation, the establishment of the Korean government, economic development, and economic advancement in the 2000s, literacy education has contributed to learning characters and language, understanding individual person's role in the society, and realizing enlightenment and social actions by raising consciousness. Once people learned Hangul, they had more chances to continue learning in their lives. In a sense, literacy education was a way to express compassion to and interest in the isolated people and to maintain the doctrinal significance of social education.

For over a century, literacy education in Korea went through the process of private-led movements, institutionalization, and systematization, and has become a significant education policy in the context of lifelong learning. The State and local governments have cooperated with private institutions in order to provide literacy education because there were and still are constant requests from illiterate adults.

The expansion of literacy education led the participation in lifelong learning. After learners finished literacy education courses, they continued to study in various lifelong learning programs. Now, the process of finishing literacy education and joining lifelong learning has become a major part in life.

In case of the rate of participation in lifelong learning, the rate was 17.2% in 2000, 21.6% in 2004, 29.8% in 2007, 26.4% in 2008, 28% in 2009, and 30.5% in 2010. Within a decade, the rate increased by 13.3% from 17.2% in 2000 to 30.5% in 2010. Such expansion of literacy education and the systematic policy of lifelong learning have resulted in more participation in lifelong learning.

Figure 4-3 | Progress of the Rate of Participation in Lifelong Learning (2000-2010)



Source: Statistics Korea (2000). 2000 Social Indicators in Korea; Statistics Korea (2004). 2004 Social Indicators in Korea; Korean Educational Development Institute (2007). 2007 A Study on the State of Lifelong Learning. Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute; Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2008). 2008 Result of Lifelong Learning Statistics Survey. Press release by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2009). 2009 Result of Lifelong Learning Statistics Survey. Press release by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2010). 2010 Result of Lifelong Learning Statistics Survey. Press release by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

1.4 Cooperative System between Government and NGOs

Throughout history of the government's support for adult literacy education, the government had carried out the support policy actively for a while and then passively thereafter. At the intersection between the two periods, various NGOs made efforts to provide literacy education. While the government-led policy had advantages in the strong administrative system that made the policy quickly spread within the nation, NGOs had abundant experiences and expertise in illiterate learners-oriented methods of literacy education. As such, the policy for adult literacy education in Korea has its significance

that the government has cooperated with NGOs through the multi-faceted development in politics, economy, and society.

During the period of national restoration, the policy for literacy education was actively carried out by the government. In the 2000s, the policy was executed under the cooperation between the public and the private sectors. Especially, the enactment of the Lifelong Education Act in 1998 has become a foundation for conducting the policy for adult literacy education. This Act also became a medium to revive the government-led policy for literacy education that had stopped since the mid-1960s. After the Act was enacted, the era of lifelong learning started through the establishment of the lifelong learning system and mid-to long-term development plan. The government also took charge of carrying out the literacy education status survey and the study on recognition of academic background. Furthermore, the lifelong learning city project in 2001 brought about interest in the right to learn among local governments, and accelerated more support for adult literacy education.

In 2006, the government carried out two major projects in the context of lifelong learning: to support lifelong learning programs for underprivileged people and to support a project for adult literacy education. These projects can be seen as an extension of the government-led policies in the 1950s and 1960s. However, the recent policy for literacy education was not led solely by the government but by the cooperation between the government and NGOs. A new system of literacy education was created by the support of the government and the commitment of NGOs.

While supporting adult literacy education, the government established the Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters, which was composed of government officials, scholars in literacy education, experts, and NGO representatives. The Deliberation Committee decides the basic direction of the literacy education project through regular meeting and serves as a consultative body between the private organizations and the government. Even though it is not legally-bound, the Review Committee on Literacy Education is operated to examine the teachers training course and to gather various opinions from different NGOs.

Every year, 300-400 literacy educational institutions participate in the literacy education project. The participation ration between national and public institutions as well as private institutions such as night schools is almost the same every year.

**Table 4-4 | The Status of Participation of Literacy Educational Institutions
(National&Public and Private)**

(Unit: Number, %)

Category		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010 (July)
National/ Public	Institutions operated by local government	17 (9.6)	48 (13.5)	44 (9.8)	50 (14.2)	48 (14.0)
	Welfare centers	61 (34.3)	74 (20.8)	114 (26.0)	68 (19.3)	96 (27.6)
	Related agencies such as Office of Education	-	10 (2.8)	22 (5.0)	20 (5.7)	19 (5.5)
	National/Public School	2 (1.1)	6 (1.7)	9 (2.1)	12 (3.4)	6 (1.7)
	Others (National/Public)	-	7 (2.0)	7 (1.6)	6 (1.7)	3 (0.9)
Subtotal		79 (45.0)	145 (40.7)	196 (44.5)	156 (44.3)	172 (49.7)
Private (Individual)	Private institutions (Welfare centers)	-	85 (23.9)	98 (22.4)	54 (15.3)	37 (10.63)
	Literacy Institutions Night Schools	41 (23.0)	27 (7.6)	37 (8.4)	35 (9.9)	42 (12.07)
	Night Schools	19 (10.7)	61 (17.1)	65 (14.8)	65 (18.4)	56 (16.09)
	Private schools or school-type lifelong learning center	-	18 (5.1)	18 (9.8)	28 (7.9)	23 (6.61)
	Religious organizations	-	16 (4.5)	21 (4.8)	13 (3.7)	17 (4.89)
	Others(Private/Individual)	38 (21.3)	4 (1.1)	4 (0.9)	2 (0.6)	1 (0.29)
Subtotal		99 (55.0)	211 (59.3)	243 (55.5)	197 (55.8)	176 (50.3)
Total		178 (100)	356 (100)	439 (100)	353 (100)	348 (100)

Source: Internal data, National Institute for Lifelong Education (2010).

As the result shows, the government-led policy for literacy education is combined with the commitment of NGOs so that the related policy can be implemented continuously. However, in developing the cooperation between the government and NGOs a number of issues still need to be solved. To resolve such issues, laws and regulations on the private-public cooperation should be modified.

1.5 Recognition of Academic Background

From the 1990s, more requests were made for the recognition of the academic background of literacy education. Accordingly, this became the center of attention and countless studies covered this issue. The idea of recognizing the result of literacy education as a certified academic background by the government was directly related to the philosophy of lifelong learning.

One of the biggest achievements of the policy for literacy education was to establish a system that recognized one's academic background so that the learning experience could be acknowledged by the society. Thanks to such achievement, illiterate adult learners could learn how to read and write and actively participate in various social activities with more confidence. Because the Koreans society thinks highly of the academic background, the recognition system could meet learner's wants to achieve higher education and learn more. If the policy for literacy education in the 1950s and 1960s focused on teaching characters to illiterate learners, the policy in the 2000s went beyond this and recognized the academic achievement in the society.

The revision of the Lifelong Education Act in 2008 was also significant because the Act stipulated the recognition of academic background. According to the revised Act, even though adult learners did not attend regular schools or take a school qualification examination, if they completed the required adult literacy program, then their academic background of elementary or middle school education level would be recognized. The Act also stated appropriate facilities, equipments, and standards for teachers to make more literacy educational institutions join the program. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the National Institute for Lifelong Education developed and distributed proper textbooks for adult illiterate learners.

Despite many advantages, there are other opinions about the recognition system. Critics say that the policy for literacy education, curriculum, and even textbooks are all led by the government, hence, taking away the autonomy from private institutions. Moreover, if the government's financial assistance goes only to institutions related to the recognition of academic background, other private institutions can be excluded from the assistance (Sung-Ho Chun, 2009). However, the recognition of academic background has its significance in that opinions of private institutions were finally included in the law and many illiterate learners were highly benefitted from the recognition. In this regard, the government and

private institutions should continue to discuss the issue of how to recognize the academic background while keeping the identity of private institutions.

According to the Lifelong Education Act, the Superintendent of each city and province can recognize the academic background of elementary education. For some years, conflicts have occurred between representatives of schools or Offices of Education who had supported school education versus representatives of private institutions who had supported lifelong learning. The former group strongly asserted that literacy education should meet the standard of the present school education in terms of class hours, facility, learning environment, and teachers' qualification in order to receive the recognition. Because of this, it took a considerable amount of time and energy to decide the standards for the curriculum, facilities and equipments, and teachers' qualification. The legal grounds were made in 2008, but the actual recognition program started to operate from 2011. At present, the Seoul Office of Education operates the literacy education program for the recognition of academic background in 31 schools and institutions; Daejeon Office of Education is operating one program in a local lifelong learning center. Chungcheongnamdo Office of Education and Jeollanamdo Office of Education each made notice about the installation and designation of the literacy education program for the recognition of academic background. Other Offices of Education are also in preparation for the recognition program. After participating in the recognition program, participants can receive the recognition of elementary or middle school education. Through alternative measures of recognizing the academic background, more illiterate people are expected to join literacy education programs and be recognized for their academic achievement by the society in the future.

2. Implications

Considering the achievement of adult literacy education in Korea, the study suggests some implications of expanding literacy education, building an infrastructure at the national level, facilitating people's participation in literacy education, and recognizing the result of literacy education and its usage.

2.1 Expansion of Concept of Literacy and Education and its Target

Through the changes in politics, society, and international situations, the policy for adult literacy education in Korea has contributed to expanding the concept of literacy. Based on Korea's experiences, the study provides some implications to other countries that are carrying out literacy education.

First, the concept of literacy should be expanded as the society changes. Recently, UNESCO and the OECD mentioned that the scope of literacy education could be expanded by social changes. According to the OECD, literacy is "the ability to understand and utilize written materials in everyday life, family, workplace, and community, and to broaden a

person's knowledge and potential" (OECD&Statistics Canada, 2000). This definition is based on the concept of functional literacy that literacy is the ability to fulfill family, society, and workplace responsibilities. However, the level and scope of the definition were elevated within the knowledge-based society. In a report titled "Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality" in 2001, the European Council pointed out that in order to actualize a lifelong learning society, every citizen should be equipped with basic skills to understand and utilize knowledge and information. The report suggested 3R (reading, writing and arithmetic) as well as IT skills, foreign language, understanding techno-culture, entrepreneurship, and social skills (European Commission, 2001; Joon Huh, 2010 requoted). Thus, considering the changes in the level of learners and adjustment to life, the concept of literacy should be changed and an appropriate adjustment in the curriculum, subjects, and methodology should be made in the future.

The target of literacy education should also be expanded and diversified as time passes. If the nation has enough resources for literacy education, omnidirectional support for literacy education should be made to all citizens. Nevertheless, as was the case of Korea in the 1950s, if the nation has insufficient resources, the government should support a certain target group. After the breakout of the Korean War in 1950, the government's literacy education focused on male adults who should serve in the army. Even after the War was over, the government focused on providing literacy education to male adults in the military. From 1954, the government carried out the illiteracy eradication program and expanded literacy education to all adults over 19 years of age. From 1955, the target group was extended to people over 12 years of age and in the 1960s, literacy education was carried out in rural areas for people who were still illiterate.

Nowadays, diverse illiterate groups have become one of the main issues in Korea. An increasing number of people has formed new illiterate groups through international marriage, migration works as well as newly-isolated people. Therefore, both the concept of literacy and related policy should be evolved in respond to such rapid social changes.

2.2 Building National Infrastructure of Legal and Institutional Support

In Korea, the policy for adult literacy education was actively implemented by the government for several decades. However, after the government lost interest in literacy education, private institutions replaced this task. Nonetheless, after some time, the job was carried out by the government again. The infrastructure of the government's policy affected the abrupt decrease of the rate of illiteracy and the constant improvement of literacy ability. In this sense, implications can be made to other countries.

First, legal grounds should be made so that the related policy can be continued at the national level. Korea's policy for literacy education could be carried out consistently because the policy was conducted at the national level. On the basis of Korean people's great interest

in education, the government focused on eradicating illiteracy by using every possible administrative measure. The enactment of the Education Act in 1949 represents a significant achievement in this regard. With this law, the government could strengthen basic education for school-aged children and secure legal grounds for supporting literacy education in the level of compulsory education. By this Act, adults who did not have literacy skills were obliged to receive more than 200 hours of education. The government's movement for eradicating illiteracy in the 1950s was also carried out with such legal background. In the period of national advancement, the Lifelong Education Act was revised and the concept and scope of literacy education were clearly stated in it. By the Act, the government was obliged to provide support for literacy education. In addition to this, the National Institute for Lifelong Education (NILE) was established to lead the policy for literacy education. In short, the legal infrastructure has influenced the success of the policy for literacy education.

Second, the leading agency and the supporting network are important for literacy education. In the period of national reconstruction, the Ministry of Culture and Education played a leading role in implementing the policy. Other governmental agencies such as the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Bureau of Public Information, and the Ministry of Defense actively participated in carrying out the government's policy and provided necessary administrative support. After the Korean War was over, the nation was in dire need of resources and in urgency of eradicating illiteracy. Considering such situation, the mobilization of national resources and administrative power was the best way to resolve the issue of illiteracy within a short period of time. After the year of 2000, when the nation was focusing on its advancement, the NILE has become the leading agency and made efforts to spread the awareness of literacy education, provide financial assistance for the operation of specific programs and related institutions, and build a system of recognizing the academic background. At present, the policy for literacy education is carried out by a separate department under the NILE. However, for better implementation of the policy, an "Adult Literacy Education Center (tentatively named)" should be established and its main tasks include the basic survey on adult literacy, program development, nurturing of teachers and instructors, the development of expertise, the development of methodology and teaching materials, and the provision of information and counseling (Joon Huh et al., 2010).

Third, the government should secure a stable source of budget and mobilize various national resources. In the period of national reconstruction, the government spent the assistance fund from other countries in developing textbooks on literacy and in 1954, the government spent its emergency fund to implement the illiteracy eradication policy. Both physical and human resources in schools were widely used by the government. As was seen in the national reconstruction movement in the 1960s, private institutions such as the Men's and Women's Councils were mobilized to maximize the use of resources and their effects. However, when the government stopped providing financial assistance after the National Reconstruction Movement Headquarters was broken up in 1964, literacy education did not receive much attention and support from the society.

Today, Korea's adult literacy education is based on the support from the State and local governments by the Lifelong Education Act. To illiterate adults, this literacy education is the minimum level of compulsory education, which means that the government should cover the entire cost. However, the reality does not always meet the expectations. To encourage more illiterate adults join the literacy educational programs, the government should expand its financial assistance.

Fourth, along with the infrastructure, the government should support both software and humanware. During the period of national reconstruction, the government put emphasis on developing and distributing textbooks for literacy education as well as mobilizing and nurturing teachers. In particular, the government trained high school and university students to meet the demand. Moreover, expertise and abilities were drawn from private institutions such as the Adult Education Association and the Korean Language Society.

The government is trying to provide both software and humanware for literacy education. From 2006, the government has made efforts to provide financial assistance, develop and distribute textbooks for literacy education, and train teachers for the purpose of qualitative growth of literacy education. In case a country does not have its own language, the government should prioritize the establishment of the alphabet or characters of its native language and develop textbooks based on the everyday language.

2.3 Facilitating the Participation of NGOs

As is the case with any other national policy, the ultimate success of education policy cannot be achieved by the government's unilateral survey and planning. A successful policy can be made and operated under the cooperative relationship only when the national need and the private demand meet on a common ground. Therefore, the government should listen to the demand from the private organizations and ensure their participation. At the same time, NGOs should actively join the nation's policy and present both critical acceptance and support. Here are some advice.

First, the government should provide support for NGO's active participation and empirical research on literacy education. Going through social changes such as the introduction of knowledge-based society, ubiquitous society, and internationalization, the contents and methodologies of literacy education should be improved in terms of quality (Joon Huh et al., 2010). From the past, the curriculum and contents of literacy education institutions have changed in line with the social change and the level of learners. Textbooks for literacy education have diversified compared to those of the early times. However, the research on literacy education lags behind at the moment. Even though the government conducted the survey on literacy from the 1950s and the National Institute of the Korean Language carries out a survey on basic literacy skills, not much in-depth research has been done on literacy education so far. In this sense, further support is required for empirical research on literacy education by both national institutes and NGOs. After the late 1990s, institutions such as the Korean Literacy and Adult

Basic Education Association, the Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education, and the National Association of Popular Education have conducted researches on literacy education. However, those research efforts were not made in collaboration with national institutions. Thus, more support should be made for national institutions' R&D and NGO's research activities on literacy education. Private institutions also need to carry out research activities on the present status of literacy education and the literacy education institutions, literacy educational programs, recognition of academic background, textbook development, nurturing experts, and national policy.

Second, the participation of NGOs should be expanded in the nation's policy. It is important to remember that when the government lost interest in literacy education, NGOs carried it out through exchange and solidarity. Even in the 1990s, the Korean Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education played its part through consultation with the government and led the government resume its policy for literacy education. NGOs also joined the nation's literacy education support program from the beginning as one of the members. In areas such as the operation of the support program, the training of teachers, and the development of textbooks for literacy education, NGOs played a very significant role. However, as the government regained interest and the government's policy operated well, the authority and participation of NGOs weakened. To resolve this problem, NGOs should become a core member that can propose alternatives to the government rather than just expect governmental support. NGOs have their own experiences, expertise, and diversity. Thus, NGO's constant participation should be guaranteed in certain procedures and the structure.

Third, the role of NGOs should be facilitated through more support for NGO's network. So far, NGOs have built a nationwide network. However, it was difficult to develop the network because the targets, situations, and characteristic of each institution were too diverse (Byung-Yoon Noh, 2009). In order to build up NGOs' power and make them positively influence national policies, the facilitation of network is a must. NGOs can play their parts in discovering new institutions, developing programs, having exchanges with national institutions, collaborating with international institutions, developing literacy educational contents, and nurturing professionals. To prevent the central government and local governments lose interest in literacy education, NGOs should build up more networks.

2.4 Social Recognition and Standardization of Learning Result

The revised Lifelong Education Act of 2008 has secured the institutional footing for recognizing the academic background of elementary or middle school education. This is for people who finish the required literacy educational program installed or designated by the Superintendent of a city or a province. In the same context with the learning account system, the result of literacy education can be recognized by the society and facilitate more adult learners to join literacy educational programs. Here are a few suggestions:

First, the way of recognizing the result of learning should be diversified in the future. The recognition of academic background is a great achievement in the government's policy for literacy education. Thanks to this, people can not only understand characters but also join the society with more confidence and proceed to receiving higher education. Hence, for better implementation, it is important to establish a standard curriculum for literacy education that can be recognized as academic background and place qualified teachers who finished teachers training courses of the NILE. Still, there is a concern that such institutionalization of literacy education may lead to formalization of learning that removes the various learning context and makes a publicly-recognizable form through abstraction (Holliday et al, 2007). So far, adult learners have participated in literacy education not just for understanding characters but for learning how to see the world and think on their own through voluntary and creative learning activities. If the support for literacy education puts more focus on formal results such as diploma or higher education, then informal results such as more confidence, better family relationship, and better quality of independent life may be neglected in the future. Therefore, in order to make a better system, the academic background should become a comprehensive track that is much more open and flexible by considering the distinctiveness and diversity unlike the current school system (Joon Huh, 2008).

Second, more communication and discussion are necessary for cooperation and connection among the central government, local governments, and NGOs. If literacy education focuses more on the recognition of academic background, then it is likely that the creativity and spontaneity of the existing literacy education be further weakened. The curriculum can be somewhat standardized and may not be free from the regulations by the Office of Education. If the government's policy does not change its direction, voluntary literacy education institutions may naturally fall behind. To prevent this, the government, literacy education institutions, and NGO should actively communicate for better coordination. In practice, the authority of the Deliberation Committee on Education for Learning Characters should be expanded and a multi-faceted cooperative system should be set up in the future. All processes of literacy education including policy-making, financing, facility, program, training, promotion, inspection, and evaluation should be made through a collective decision-making body, collective fundraising and management, collective facility management, collective program planning, collective teachers training courses planning and operation, and collective inspection and evaluation.

A systematic network is very important for better cooperation both at the national level and local government level. At present, the limited budget of the central government is supported by the investment of local governments. This system can maximize the limited resources for supporting literacy education programs. When literacy education is more facilitated at the local level, illiterate adults can get better access to education, more appropriate facilities and more professional volunteers and teachers. Therefore, collective effort should be made to maximize the achievements.

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